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ABSTRACT

This comparative analysis deals with the administration and evaluation structures for primary and secondary schools in the member states of the European Community. It addresses four major issues: (1) how to hand over large amounts of autonomy to schools without upsetting the unity of the national education system; (2) what role parents and others in the education community should have in managing schools and how to reconcile their intervention with the professional specifications of the teachers' work; (3) what administrative structures and management models will guarantee that schools are better run; and (4) how can external evaluation be reconciled with internal evaluation as the practice of self-analysis of the school. This comparative analysis represents a cross-section of situations and phenomena in the 12 European Community countries. The document is divided into three main parts. The first outlines the context. The second part, concerning the school administration, details such areas as structural characteristics, the school council, and councils for educational and pedagogic coordination and guidance. The third part comparatively analyzes school evaluation strategies of the countries in the Community. Conclusions are given. (Contains 30 references.) (RR)

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Danish and Portuguese EURYDICE Units

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ADMINISTRATION AND EVALUATION STRUCTURES FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

in the twelve Member States
of the European Community

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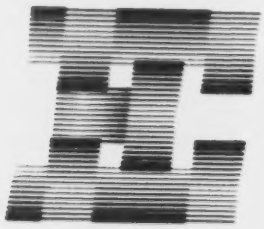
Comparative analysis carried out for EURYDICE,
the Education Information Network in the European Community
by the Portuguese and Danish EURYDICE Units



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in the twelve member states of the european community. EURYDICE

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This comparative analysis deals with the administration and evaluation structures for primary and secondary schools in the Member States of the European Community. It was carried out in 1989-1990 by the Portuguese and Danish Units of the EURYDICE network. All the network Units made contributions which were both generous and useful.

The study was subsidized by the Commission of the European Communities which, since 1989, has provided several Units with support for comparative analyses on subjects of common interest.

EURYDICE, which has been operational since 1980, is the education information network in the European Community. In the Council Resolution of December 6 1990, it was defined as "the chief instrument for providing information on national and Community structures, systems and developments in the field of education".

As a result of information exchanges between the Units, an ever increasing stock of assets is being accrued. Such assets open the way for stronger and improved reciprocal awareness of national systems and Community initiatives so that educational cooperation between the Member States of the Community may become easier.

This comparative analysis is an example of the results of such information exchange within EURYDICE. We would like to extend our thanks to all the Units for their cooperation and particularly the Portuguese and Danish Units for their summary and analysis work which I feel sure will be appreciated by all our readers.

José Antonio FERNANDEZ
Director, European Unit of EURYDICE
November 1991

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FOREWORD

FOREWORD

1. One of the tasks assigned to the network during 1989, on the initiative and with the co-operation of the Member States' Units, was to provide comparative analyses of topics considered to be of general interest. In developing well-researched documentation, the network is trying to discharge its basic mandate which is:

   - to analyse the explicit and implicit needs of policy makers;
   - to identify and exploit all available and useful sources of information;
   - to process the information, to present it in an interesting and relevant way in relation to the identified needs and to disseminate it.

2. Choosing the subjects to be studied and reaching agreement with Member States on common working procedures are the first steps in the preparation of a comparative analysis.

   At the outset, the interests of Portugal and Denmark did not seem to coincide. The European Unit of EURYDICE challenged them to link the topics of school administration (of interest to Portugal) and self-evaluation of schools (a Danish aim).

   The challenge was taken up by the Portuguese and Danish Units of EURYDICE. The following paper shows how far it has been possible to combine and compare these two subjects, despite the disproportion in both the amount of information available on them and the experience obtained.

   School administration is an evolving reality defined in a variety of ways which illustrate current reflection on it and the recognition of its importance. School evaluation seems to be an increasing though not explicit preoccupation. Thinking on evaluation is not yet accompanied in Europe by any firm ideas regarding the transition from a system of external evaluation to one of self-evaluation. This self-evaluation implies an increase in the school's independence and the setting of performance indicators.

3. In 1989 the Danish Ministry of Education launched a programme aimed at developing the quality of education on several levels.

   This programme includes a number of actions initiated centrally such as the description of performance indicators, of the content and the inter-relationship between subjects taught from primary school to university level and also the development and implementation of self-evaluation methodologies.
   All these activities aim at motivating the individual institution to take independent action in order to improve the quality of its education.

   So as to take advantage of other Member States' experience, the Danish Unit of EURYDICE joined with the Portuguese Unit to carry out this comparative analysis of school evaluation.

   Bearing in mind the aims of the programme for improving the quality of education

mentioned above, the Danish Unit's interest was largely focused on external and internal methods of school evaluation. However, the composition and functioning of the bodies concerned at various levels in the administration of schools are important elements to be taken into account in any comparative analysis of evaluation.

Consequently, in this analysis, the central role of the administration and management of schools was largely dealt with by the Danish Unit.

Traditionally, the concept of school evaluation has been closely associated with the function of control. This is particularly true of external evaluation. Internal evaluation, however, is generally seen as a tool used by the school to improve its performance as an educational establishment.

In the light of current trends in education policy in Western Europe, both types of evaluation - internal and external - seem to be undergoing a process of evolution and change especially as regards their use and their definition. One may observe on the one hand in some education systems a tendency to decentralize finance and school management functions and on the other hand in certain countries a tendency to centralize decision-making regarding the content of education.

In both situations, there is an increasing need for evaluation, external and internal. The question of accountability has become more essential than ever; there is increasing evidence of a legitimate demand for the efficient use of the resources allocated to education, while future improvement in the quality of education will require better use of the available resources.

One way of achieving this is by systematic evaluation of school activity, either by outside bodies or by methods devised within each school, or by a combination of the two.

4. For Portugal, at present involved in an extensive educational reform including in particular a review of the system of school administration and management, the priority interest is in an analysis of the situation in Member States.

The initial management model was based essentially on teachers and schools with very little independence; in order to improve the quality of education, it was of the utmost importance to coordinate the development of the reform of teaching programmes in parallel with that of a school management model which, while safeguarding the democratic aspect of elected management bodies, ensured greater participation by parents and by the authorities and extended the schools' spheres and powers of independent administration. It became clear that there was a link between this development in school administration and the need simultaneously to establish a framework for regular, systematic self-evaluation.

The possibility of combining the two aspects of administration and evaluation in an analysis in greater depth therefore became an interesting and relevant topic of research.

5. As a consequence of the two Units' initial interests and of the division of work agreed upon after several joint meetings, the Portuguese Unit of EURYDICE was responsibile for drafting the Introduction and Part II of the document and the Danish Unit for Parts I and III.

6. In the course of the analysis, the cooperation of the EURYDICE Units of the various Member States became indispensable to the success of such an undertaking. Indeed, the accuracy of the information needed for a comparative analysis can be achieved only with

the informed and pertinent participation of all the Units of the network in providing replies to the questions asked, returning analytical tables and checking and validating processed data. In general, and apart from a few delays and certain replies which failed to arrive, the EURYDICE network acquitted itself well.

7. The need to set a deadline for assembling and up-dating the information is another constraint on comparative analyses. The shifting scene and the educational reforms afoot in several Member States make it necessary to fix a date after which changes, either in progress or in prospect, cannot be taken into account.

8. The experience gained from this project will certainly enable any future comparative analyses which might be undertaken by the network to be better prepared and their scope more clearly defined. What is involved is the analysis of a real-life situation essentially on the basis of documents produced or distributed by official bodies. As a result, there are large areas which remain untouched, which this analysis can alert us to but for the investigation of which a different type of approach would be needed. It is only through methodologies such as case studies that real-life situations can be analysed in greater depth and understood, by combining the points of view of all those concerned in the school administration and evaluation processes: teachers, parents, public representatives, pupils, administrators. We hope we may have stimulated a desire to open up new perspectives of study and information.

9. We also hope that we have succeeded in overcoming the cultural and linguistic barriers and in highlighting and accentuating the great differences which exist between the two education systems best known to the authors - the Danish, with its integrated system of basic education and highly decentralized administration, and the Portuguese, with its split system of basic education and centralized administration.

It is for the reader to judge whether we have achieved our essential aim of a comparative analysis.

We have tried to bring the two systems into close focus, to cross-analyse them and, where the raw data permitted, to treat all Member States in an even-handed manner.

We have avoided making recommendations or distinguishing trends, but some general characteristics and directions of development have been identified.

The Portuguese and Danish Units of EURYDICE
June 1991

Note: After this comparative analysis was complete, the Portuguese government approved a Decree modifying the arrangements for the management of primary and secondary schools. This Decree does not differ in essence from the draft to which several references are made in the text, except as regards the appointment of headmasters and the membership of school councils. Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6 of Part II have been brought up to date for Portugal in accordance with the new legislation. This Decree will be implemented progressively on an experimental basis; as a result, both systems will co-exist for some time to come.

9

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

JUSTIFICATION OF TOPIC

The school (teaching establishment/education centre) is nowadays a major object of theoretical analysis, research and innovation [1], as well as legislative and administrative intervention.

In many of the Member States of the European Community this "interest in the school" has led to measures which radically change the framework of relations between administration (central or local) and the school, as well as the school management.

Some examples of these measures are found in legislation recently published in DENMARK, FRANCE, PORTUGAL, SPAIN and ENGLAND and WALES, mostly within the framework of more extensive reform.

In DENMARK, this is the case with a series of laws published on 1 January 1990 which define a new system for state and municipality maintained school administration, in which the increase in authority given to the school council is emphasised (the majority of members being parents).

In FRANCE, following the "Loi d'Orientation sur l'éducation" dated 10 July 1989, measures have also been taken in this area: those involved in the school preparation of "a school project", with the participation of all members of the education community, based on which contracts with the administration will be established; those strengthening the power of intervention of parents in the school and which aim to facilitate their participation in school management bodies; and more recently, those concerning pupils' participation.

In PORTUGAL, this is the case with Decree-Law no.43/89, dated 3 February 1989, which establishes the legal system for school autonomy in post-primary education (in the fields of administration, pedagogy, finance and culture); it is also the law which changes the management of schools (now in the final stage of preparation) and in which parent participation is greatly increased in the management bodies of the school.

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[1] There is a vast amount of literature on the Sciences of Education, which appeared principally in the seventies, on the school — characteristics, school effects, administration, efficiency conditions, and reflecting different points of view: institutional analysis, sociology, organisational analysis, administrative theory, etc.

There has also been interest shown by several international organisations in intervention in education particularly the OECD//CERI, supporting projects on schools, the most recent examples of which are those connected with "school quality" (1987) or "school improvement" (ISIP — 1982/86).

In SPAIN, within the scope of the reform law, changes are also envisaged in the responsibilities of the different authorities and in the management of primary and secondary schools.

Finally, in ENGLAND and WALES, approval of the Education Reform Act (ERA) in 1988, also affected school administration. Changes have brought about a transfer of responsibilities from local authorities (LEA) to school councils (governing bodies) for general management or, in particular, financial management and programmes. This increase in authority of the school council or governing body is greater in the case of grant-maintained schools (schools which with the ERA of 1988, opted to be directly financed by central government). At the same time the participation of parents in school councils has been strengthened.

These brief references to expressive reforms affecting the way in which schools are run and school management in some Member States [2] clearly indicate the importance and the opportunity of this comparative analysis.

Indeed, the general trend is towards an increase in the margin of autonomy of the school, principally in the fields of finance and pedagogy. This trend is clear in the transfer of responsibilities to the school from central administration (for example: FRANCE, PORTUGAL), or from local administration (for example: DENMARK, ENGLAND and WALES), and appears to be integrated in the wider ranging processes of administrative (re)decentralisation or (re)centralisation [3].

This reinforcement of the margin of autonomy of schools involves three types of measure normally associated with it:

- an increase in parent and other community member participation in decision making bodies in the school;
- an improvement in management, particularly through a higher qualified head of the school;
- school evaluation and its efficiency.

The preparation of this comparative analysis on ADMINISTRATIVE AND EVALUATION STRUCTURES OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, in the twelve Member States of the European Community, aims in this way to describe the principal changes underway in these fields, considering measures that have been taken and reflecting on the trend in developments in the different Member States.

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[2] These reforms (as well as relevant legislation in other Members States) are analysed in more detail in chapters 4,5 and 6.

[3] An analysis of recent developments in school administration in certain traditionally decentralised countries has shown that nowadays there are two apparent contradictory movements; on the one hand, local authorities which work as "power centres" for schools in a particular region are beginning to lose some of their responsibilities to the school, so that we can speak of "redecentralisation". On the other hand, central authority has recovered some of its lost influence in areas such as curricula, control and evaluation, taking some responsibilities from local authority, and in this case we can talk of "recentralisation".

THE MAJOR ISSUES

Despite the specific context and existing differences, the twelve member states today face (with a greater or lesser degree of urgency) the need to solve four major questions on the development of school administration and evaluation:

• How to hand over a large amount of autonomy to schools so that they can build their own identity, adjusted to the characteristics of the communities they serve without losing their efficiency, or upsetting the unity of the national education system?

• What is the role that parents (as well as other elements in the education community) should have in managing schools and how can their intervention be reconciled with the professional specifications of the teachers' work?

• What administrative structures and management models will guarantee that schools are better run, bearing in mind their special organisational features?

• How can external evaluation (an administrative instrument for controlling and correcting the fulfilment of national, regional and local regulations and objectives) be reconciled with internal evaluation, as the practice of self-analysis of the school, essential for its development and definition/up-dating of the educational project.

Several answers have already been given to these questions in many of the Member States, with subsequent changes being made to regulations and the administrative structure of schools.

The problems raised by these questions must therefore be studied to understand the current situation and foreseeable development in school administration in the European Community —the major aim of this comparative analysis.

The above questions serve as a basis for establishing the field of analysis and criteria for the selection of data and other information to be collected.

METHODOLOGY

In agreement with the guidelines defined by EURYDICE [4] comparative analyses are a represent a cross-section of situations and phenomena in the twelve Community countries, at a given moment. This representation should reveal the elements useful for

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[4] Guidelines defined by the work group for "comparative analyses" appearing in the document submitted to the Eurydice Steering Group towards the end of 1989 "Eurydice, Guide for preparing comparative analyses (conclusions of the work group)", Eurydice, Brussels, 1989 (pol. doc.).

understanding a situation and the manifestations of a phenomenon. These elements are particularly concerned with the education context and development trends. Their content should reveal common problems in the different Member States and present policies selected and strategies used.

With this aim in mind comparative analyses should:

- briefly and clearly process and explain information available on the topic;
- analyse this information, promote reflection, suggest areas for examination, identify converging areas and differences in order to encourage synergy.

"Although this part of the analysis may raise problems of objectivity through a poor understanding of the context or because of different value judgements or evaluations, it is, however, essential to avoid an over-superficial and grey presentation which does not correspond to the needs of decision makers.

Any part of the comparative analysis may be contested but this will be both interesting and constructive if there are no doubts as to the methods used in preparing it." [5] .

It is in this context, and within the framework of these guidelines, that the choice of methods was made. These define the processes for the collection and handling of information required for our study, as well as the field of application and objectives.

OUTLINING THE FIELD OF ANALYSIS :

The comparative analyses deals, on the one hand, with administrative structures in primary and secondary schools (including the participation of different members of the educational community in these structures), and on the other, with the external and internal evaluation processes of these schools.

The collected information is essentially related to public education (financed by state or local authorities) and does not include vocational (and professional) secondary education which have a specificity of their own.

On the other hand, the subject of this comparative analysis, as regards school administration, is confined to the internal bodies which ensure the management of each school. However, in order to allow a better understanding of the different administration and evaluation school structures we shall present a short description of each Member State education system, and its administration.

Although preferably with a view to the situation in state and municipality maintained schools (because this is the major system in almost all the twelve Member States),

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[5] Guidelines defined by the work group for "comparative analyses" appearing in the document submitted to the Eurydice Steering Group towards the end of 1989 "Eurydice, Guide for preparing comparative analyses (conclusions of the work group)", Eurydice, Brussels, 1989 (pol. doc.).

reference will also be made to private education, although there is legislation which standardises the administration of this type of school and, principally, when the percentage of this type of school in the community justifies it.

Bearing in mind that organisational methods and management processes increasingly tend to adjust to the specific nature of each school and vary considerably depending on the characteristics of its protagonists, the comparative analysis should be located solely at one national, "abstract" level (without considering specific or concrete situations). This means that in collecting information and processing it, standardised and legal aspects were given priority, thus obtaining an "official picture" of what school administration should be (and not that which in fact it is, in each specific situation, whether from a formal or informal point of view).

This does not mean any preference for a structural point of view in approaching administration and school evaluation, nor a uniform and centralised view of education systems. On the one hand it is the result of conditioning operational factors linked to the objective of comparative analysis as part of a policy for the publication of information by Eurydice; and on the other, of the actual macro-analytical nature of the study which deals at the same time with twelve countries while aiming to bring out the most significant common aspects in their administration policies and school evaluation.

With regard to the first aspect, it should be remembered that comparative analyses are used essentially to process and produce information for decision-making (on policy or operations) and not for carrying out any type of scientific research aiming to strengthen or undermine hypotheses.

Regarding the second aspect, the macro view underlying comparative studies on the education systems of different countries always implies a view which reduces the reality that is to be compared. Only what is comparable can be compared (using available information), which means in the context of the present study avoiding the variety of organisational elements that create the difference between the several schools and define what many authors consider to be "relative autonomy". [6]

Finally, the limitations of time and resources, specific to this type of work, also prevented the systematic examination of spokespersons, not committed to the point of view of administration (parents' and students' associations, teachers' unions, local representatives, specialists, etc.).

Having defined the limits of this comparative analyses, it should be considered essentially as a reference framework for characterising school administration and evaluation in the twelve Community countries and for tracing their development.

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[6] If we go into all these elements an approach will have to be used similar to a case study to be able to compare schools or types of school according to their organisational characteristics, which clearly goes beyond the objectives of this study.

Besides this, it is also a preliminary study, defining problems on the topic in question, resulting from the legal framework which conditions the way in which schools function. From this point of view it should be supplemented with other more detailed studies involving more limited areas, or using other sources of information or other methods.

PLANNING THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Having defined the problems and the limits of the field of analysis, it is important now to look at the way in which the comparative analysis process was planned.

Three major stages were defined for the work:

- **1st. stage** - Collection and processing of information for each Member State with the purpose of:

DESCRIBING the most significant aspects of the education system and its administration which serve as a context for school administration and evaluation.

DESCRIBING the regulations controlling the constitution and functioning of different bodies (collective and individual) which guarantee school administration;

DESCRIBING external and internal evaluation processes.

ANALYSING information obtained to identify the dominant characteristics, "critical zones" and development perspectives.

- **2nd. stage** - Proceeding with a comparative analysis of administration and school evaluation among the different Member States, with the purpose of :

COMPARING existing structures, attributions and responsibilities of the different bodies, external and internal evaluation processes;

INTERPRETING similarities and differences in an attempt to discover their significance.

-**3rd. stage** - Detection of problem situations (distribution of responsibilities and different levels of administration and schools; reconciliation of interests in the participation of different members of the education community; the complementary or antagonistic nature of external and internal evaluation), with the purpose of :

DESCRIBING THE SITUATION in relation to the questions of administrative decentralisation, autonomy of schools, participation, evaluation processes;

ANALYSING TRENDS suggesting some interpretations on short term development of policies regarding school administration and their evaluation.

INFORMATION COLLECTION AND PROCESSING:

For collecting the information required for the first stage different data collection forms were prepared and the instructions for filling them out compiled.

These forms cover the following areas:

— **description of national context** (administration of education system, simplified organisational chart of the education system, types of schools);

— **collective bodies** (identifying for each body: its composition [members, places, duration of mandates, retribution], working rules, [presidency, process of decision-making, regularity of meetings, other regulations], responsibilities, principal tasks);

— **individual bodies** (identifying for each body: conditions of access, duration of mandates, other bodies in which they participate, system for offering services, retribution for service offered, responsibilities, principal tasks, initial and in-service training);

— **participation** (identifying for each member of the education community — teachers, parents, pupils, auxiliary and administrative staff, local authorities, representatives of economic and cultural interests — the structures in which they participate, the area of intervention [definition of goals and objectives, administrative and financial management, pedagogic organisation, non-curricular education activities]);

— **external evaluation** (identifying for each intervening organism: administrative level to which it belongs, assessors, processes used [for producing evaluation and transmitting results], fields being evaluated, buildings, equipment, human resources, processes, results], principal quantitative and qualitative indicators, school collaboration, use of results);

— **internal evaluation** (identifying the person or body responsible, processes used, fields evaluated, principal quantitative and qualitative indicators, use of results).

These forms for data collection are filled out in two steps:

During the first step the aim was to collect as much information as possible, from existing documentation in Portuguese and Danish units of Eurydice (particularly the national files and answers to questions on individual aspects of topics dealt with in this comparative analysis);

In the second step each national unit within Eurydice was sent the forms containing available information, for checking and filling in the information. In some cases this stage included a visit to the country itself for personal contact and a better explanation on issues raised.

After the first stage (description) was completed a file was organised with the information collected on each Member State (although in some cases not all the desired information was obtained).

Next, the information was examined broadly according to the different types of bodies, processes of participation and evaluation, which allowed thematic comparisons to be drawn revealing similarities and differences among the Member States (second stage).

Based on this comparative analysis and its interpretation common problems were detected related to administrative structures of schools and their evaluation, as well as identifying major development trends (third stage).

These last two stages run the risk of falling into subjective appraisals which may not correspond to the appraisal that is made based on other points of view. However, this risk is necessary to make this study more dynamic and to make it easier to deal with the major issues arising in this field facing the twelve Member States.

GENERAL OVERVIEW

GENERAL OVERVIEW

This document is a summary of information obtained throughout the above three stages of this study.

The description of administration and evaluation systems for schools in each of the Member States was simplified as much as possible, giving priority to broad examination for a comparison between the most significant elements.

PART I, identifies the organisational and administrative **CONTEXT** of education systems in the European Community, the national frameworks which directly condition administration of the school and its evaluation.

In **Chapter 1** some information is given on the education system in each Member State, and on the principal characteristics of schools. This data, in summary form, aims essentially to give reference information in order to throw light on some national features of the system studied.

Chapter 2 gives the same type of information for the administrative system of education in each state revealing the differences in the distribution of pedagogic, administrative and financial responsibilities among the different levels of administration (central, regional and local).

PART II gives the principal results of the comparative study on **ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES OF SCHOOLS**.

Chapter 3 identifies the principal types of body and their general characteristics.

. **Chapters 4, 5 and 6** give a more detailed analysis of the principal bodies (school council, head of the school, councils for educational and pedagogic coordination and guidance, respectively) describing the essential aspects of each one in each Member State and interpreting their similarities and differences.

In chapter 7 the principal **conclusions** drawn from the comparative analysis are given principally in three fields: scope and decision-making of the different bodies; processes for the participation of teachers, pupils, parents and other members of the community in school administration; management contribution for school quality and effectiveness.

Finally, **PART III** deals with the results of the comparative study on **SCHOOL EVALUATION**. **Chapter 8** is dedicated to **external evaluation** and **chapter 9** to **internal evaluation**.

Although clearly related to school administration and the control of its effectiveness, school evaluation had to be isolated for the comparative study to allow the objectives and processes of evaluation to be compared, principally with regard to external evaluation. Internal evaluation is still in its infancy and is not institutionalised in most states, although it is the concern of many entities, in particular the schools themselves.

Chapter 10 gives the principal conclusions revealing the most obvious trends found throughout the comparative analysis in the field of evaluation.

PART I

THE CONTEXT

CHAPTER 1: THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN THE 12 EEC COUNTRIES

CHAPTER 1: THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN THE 12 EEC COUNTRIES

This chapter contains information that we consider fundamental for understanding the administration and evaluation structures of the education systems in the 12 member countries of the European Community.

As pointed out in the introduction (p.7) to this report the main stress will be on describing the situation in public (state, county or municipal) schools as these publicly owned and maintained schools are in the majority in most Member States. Reference will, however, be made to private schools in as far as the situation justifies it.

Furthermore some figures on the number of schools and pupils are given. In cases where figures on the average size of schools and pupil-teacher ratio are available, these are also reproduced.

The description of education systems will comprise pre-school education, primary and secondary levels.

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Most countries provide some kind of pre-school education for one or more years. This education is normally optional and aims to prepare the child for the teaching and life in school.

In IRELAND and the NETHERLANDS there are no national system of pre-schools or nurseries. However, National Schools in IRELAND may accept pupils on or after their fourth birthday. In approximately 53% of the 4 year olds and almost 100% of the five year olds were in full-time attendance at school in IRELAND. The compulsory school age in IRELAND begins at the age of six. Since the 1st of August 1985 separate pre-school education has not existed in the NETHERLANDS. However, there are playgroups or creches for children below four years which are run privately or managed and supervised by the local authority. Compulsory education in the NETHERLANDS starts at the age of five. Pre-school normally starts when the child is about 3 years old.

In all countries except one pre-school is optional but still considered to be an integral part of the education system.

In LUXEMBOURG pre-school is partly compulsory in the sense that pre-school education is compulsory for 5 year olds whereas it is optional for 4 year olds.

In some countries pre-school starts when the child is 4 or 5 years old.

In DENMARK pre-school classes are offered for children between the age of 5 and 7. These classes are in a rising number of schools an integrated part of what is known as "coordinated school start". A change in the law on pre-school came into force on 1 August 1986. According to the change, pre-school children may be taught together with children in the first two classes of the comprehensive Folkeskole for a limited number of lessons.

Attendance at pre-school establishments for the different age groups varies to some extent in the member countries. At the same time there are different ways of indicating the attendance rates. In some cases statistics are given in absolute figures and in other cases the information is expressed in percentage of the age groups in question. There seems, however, to be a generally high rate of attendance at least for the age groups 4 - 6 year olds.

Estimated average figures will be about 85 - 100% attendance with an increase from four-year olds to the group of five-year olds.

Pre-school education means different things in the different countries of the EEC. In most countries proper teaching is part of pre-school education. Play and other development activities are the main concern during this period of education.

In BELGIUM the situation is described as follows:
"Although many pre-school establishments are attached to primary schools and housed in the same building, no real teaching takes place at pre-primary level. The emphasis lies rather on the child`s introduction to life in society, to mental physical and language development and to music and art activities."

In FRANCE, however, the last year of pre-school education (the 6-year olds) is the first year of a three-year learning cycle of primary school.

In spite of the fact that there are different types of pre-school education in the FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY: pre-school classes, school kindergartens and special kindergartens, they all have the objective of promoting the physical and mental development of the children through play and other suitable activities.

In SPAIN a reform of pre-school education is proposed by law in 1990 and the government hopes to implement the reform in the six years 1991/92 to 1996/97. According to this law pre-school will be organized as a proper level of education. It will remain optional and it will be organized in two cycles: 0-3 years and 3 - 6 years. The aim of this reform is among other

things to widen the provision of pre-school education to a higher percentage of these age groups.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION, PRIMARY LEVEL

All the children of the European Community attend school between the age of seven and fourteen. Full-time compulsory schooling lasts for at least eight years and for an average of nine years.

In BELGIUM compulsory education is full-time up to 15 years of age and covers a maximum of 7 years primary education and at least the first two years of secondary education.Pupils who do not wish to continue full-time compulsory education after the age of 15 or 16 must attend part-time education at training establishments or centres for part-time education up to the age of 18.
One of the issues in current reforms of education in some of the member countries is an extension of compulsory education.

In the FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY compulsory education consists of 9 or 10 years of full-time schooling and three years of part-time schooling.

In ITALY a general reform of upper-secondary education is currently being considered. Among other things this reform concerns the extension of compulsory education up to 16.

Compulsory schooling in the NETHERLANDS starts at the age of five and is completed either:
— after 12 years of full-time compulsory education
— or, at the end of the school year in which the pupil has reached the age of 16.
Pupils leaving at the age of 16 must attend a one-year part time compulsory education one or two days per week in an institute for part time education.

Until 1987 compulsory education in PORTUGAL lasted 6 years and comprised two cycles of 4 and 2 years. For pupils enrolled in the first year of basic education in 1987 - 88 and for subsequent years compulsory education lasts for 9 years comprising three cycles of four, two and three years respectively.

A reform in 1990 will extend compulsory education in SPAIN from 8 to 10 years covering 6 years of primary education and 4 years of secondary education.

In all the member countries pupils receive basic schooling in primary schools before they reach the age of 10 or 12 years. This education may be given in public or private

schools. There are significant differences between the countries in the number of private and public schools. At primary level the proportion of public to private schools and number of pupils in each expressed as percentage is represented in table 1. Figures on the average size of schools and the pupil/teacher ratio are also included i n the diagram.

When comparing the figures of this diagram it seems natural to treat the countries as two distinct groups when considering the share of private education as compared to public education. The first group consists of those countries where between 1/3 and 2/3 of the schools are privately run. The NETHERLANDS, BELGIUM and SPAIN belong to this group. There might, however, be different reasons and backgrounds which have led to a similar share of private education in these countries.

The existence of three communities (French, Dutch and German-speaking) and four linguistic areas: Dutch speaking, French speaking, German speaking and the bilingual area of Brussels may be an important part of the background for and thus explain the relative high share of private education in BELGIUM. The central right to freedom of education laid down in the Dutch Constitution no doubt plays an important role in explaining why private education in the NETHERLANDS forms a major part of education at all levels.

The second group is formed by the countries in which the public schools are in the majority. The percentage of public schools ranges from about 75% to 95% of all schools at this basic level of schooling. In most cases the percentage of schools corresponds to an equally high percentage of pupils attending these schools. In a few cases, however, the schools provide education for a lower number of pupils than could be expected when looking at the share of schools which are public.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SECONDARY LEVEL

In most EEC countries the time between the age of 12 and 16 is when choices are made about the kind of secondary education pupils will receive. In some countries no streaming of pupils at secondary level takes place until the pupils are between 14 and 16 years old.

The DANISH education system does not differentiate between primary and lower secondary education. This means that the pupils are kept together in the same class for at least 9 years of schooling. Streaming however takes place in a number of subjects (Mathematics, English, German, Physics/Chemistry) in the 8th to the 10th class of the Folkeskole.

In GREECE streaming takes place after the pupils have left the Gymnasia at the age of 15. There are four types of post compulsory education: General, Classical, Comprehensive and Technical/vocational. For the age group of 14 to 19 years the education system in ITALY offers four courses at upper-secondary level: Classical, Artistic, Technical and Vocational.

In the other member countries streaming of pupils takes place between the age of 10 to 12.

In the FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY pupils at the age of 10 can choose between four types of lower secondary education: Hauptschule (normally leading to vocational education at upper secondary level), Realschule and Gymnasium (general secondary education leading to technical secondary schools or universities/further studies), Gesamtschule (comprehensive school normally leading to either Hauptschule or Gymnasium at upper secondary level).

IRELAND offers the pupils between 12 and 15 years three main types of lower secondary education: Vocational, Secondary and Comprehensive/Community schools. The secondary school type comprises approximately two thirds of all second-level schools. Comprehensive and community schools were established between1966 and the present day.

In conclusion the pupils at lower and/or upper secondary level can choose between general and vocational education. In some countries there is only one stream of general and one stream of vocational education. Other countries provide more than one general and/or more than one vocational stream of education.

The length of general secondary education differs from 3 (DENMARK) to 9 years (FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY) with an average of 6 years. Most of the countries distinguish between lower and upper secondary education. DENMARK and SPAIN only operate with upper secondary education. In the case of secondary vocational education the length of schooling differs from 1 year (PORTUGAL) to 7 years (LUXEMBOURG, The NETHERLANDS). Including both lower and upper secondary vocational education, the highest possible average (Some countries offer vocational education of different lengths) being approximately 4 years.

In FRANCE and GREECE students can choose between a two year vocational course or a three year course. In GREECE the third year is used for specilization. Students in FRANCE who have passed the final examinations in the three year vocational education may either take up work as technicians or craftsmen or pursue their education at institutes of technology.

In LUXEMBOURG and the NETHERLANDS vocational training starts at an early stage of schooling (at the age of 12 and 13). The Ministry of Education in LUXEMBOURG is planning a reform of technical and vocational education aimed at modifying the "stream" system and the system whereby pupils progress through these kinds of education. At the same time access to vocational courses will be made easier. Junior secondary vocational education (LBO) plays an important part in the Dutch education system, as some 30% of young people enter it directly from primary school.

As is the case with primary schooling there are notable differences between the countries regarding the share of private education at the secondary level. See diagram 1 in the appendix. It is remarkable that a higher number of secondary schools are private than the number of private schools at primary level. In seven countries the percentage of private schools lies between 40% and 80% of all the schools. In the remaining five countries the percentage of private schools ranges between 5% and 10%.

Almost half of the schools at secondary level in FRANCE are private but they are attended by only a quarter of the students in this age group.

In LUXEMBOURG the number of private schools is high but only 11% of pupils attend them. Similarly the 9% and 25% of private schools in ITALY only provide education for 4% and 8% of the age group of students. In SPAIN and BELGIUM the relation between number of private schools and number of pupils attending these schools is quite different. Here the percentage of pupils attending the schools is higher than the percentage of private schools compared to the number of pupils in public schools. In both countries, however, the share of private education at this level ranges from 37% to 50%; with an important exception for upper secondary education in SPAIN which has a share of 50% of the schools but provides education only for about 30% of the students in this age group.

EDUCATIONAL REFORMS. MAIN TRENDS IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS

A number of EC countries carried out educational reforms during the late eighties and some countries are planning reforms of basic education in the near future. The main trends of these reforms when focusing on the structure of the education systems can be summarized as follows:

— restructuring of primary education, combining pre-school education and primary education (the NETHERLANDS 1985)

— establishing new pre-schools and introducing a new cycle of 3 years of compulsory education. Establishing a number of new secondary schools (PORTUGAL 1987/88)

— integrating nursery schools into the education system, extending compulsory and comprehensive education to the age of 16, reorganising of the educational levels (SPAIN 1989).

Table 1: The Education Systems of the EEC

	BELGIUM (Dutch-speaking)		DENMARK		FRANCE		
	Prim.	*Sec. L+U*	*Prim.+L.S.*	*Upp. Sec.*	*Prim.*	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*
Number of schools							
Public (%)	37%	28%	83%	96%	87%	73%	55%
N.	930	475	1 943	437	38 227	4 868	2 587
Private (%)	63%	72%	17%	4%	13%	27%	45%
N.	1 540	1 098	386	20	5 904	1 776	2 067
Number of pupils							
Public (%)	36%	27%	90%	97%	86%	80%	78%
N.	153 522	131 813	629 309	220 472	5 778 110	2 591 421	1 777 740
Private (%)	64%	73%	10%	3%	14%	20%	22%
N.	276 300	344 135	67 075	6 296	926 717	644 818	489 983
Average size of schools							
Public	167	256	324	518	151	532	687
Private	189	401	174	314	156	363	237
Pupil/Teacher ratio							
Public	14.8	6.8	10.9	9.2	17.6	14.9	10.9
Private	15.2	8.2	11.9	9.2	15.2	14.8	14.8

Table 1: The Education Systems of the EEC *(Continued)*

	GERMANY			GREECE		
	Prim.	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*	*Prim.*	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*
Number of schools						
Public (%)	98%	93%	87%	95%	95%	93%
N.	13 678	12 038	6.728	7 967	1 678	1 408
Private (%)	2%	7%	13%	5%	5%	7%
N.	276	883	1 009	394	83	102
Number of pupils						
Public (%)	98%	93%	90%	94%	97%	95%
N.	2 250 732	3 419 639	1 067 578	813 898	439 706	360 084
Private (%)	2%	7%	10%	6%	3%	5%
N.	36 890	250 279	115 775	51 762	15 577	20 478
Average size of schools						
Public	165	284	158	102	271	256
Private	134	283	115	132	188	200
Pupil/Teacher ratio						
Public	17.4	13.2	9.5	22.8	17.1	14.9
Private	16.9	13.5	8.0	22.6	28.5	14.6

Table 1: The Education Systems of the EEC *(Continued)*

	IRELAND		ITALY			LUXEMBOURG	
	Prim.	*Sec. L+U.*	*Prim.*	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*	*Prim.*	*Sec. L+S.*
Number of schools							
Public (%)	98%	40%	92%	91%	75%		71%
N.	3 273	334	25 086	9 144	5 766	n. a.	22
Private (%)	2%	(60%)	8%	9%	25%		29%
N.	63	(504)	2 145	877	1 902	n. a.	9
Number of pupils							
Public (%)	98%	62%	93%	92%	92%		89%
N.	414 692	340 671	3 261 242	2 591 950	2 432 210	21 959 (Pu + Pr)	22 214
Private (%)	2%	38%	7%	4%	8%		11%
N.	7 458	129 532	257 074	112 990	225 052		2 657
Average size of schools							
Public	126	406	130	283	422		1 010
Private	118	n. a.	120	129	118		295
Pupil/Teacher ratio							
Public	27.0	16.4	12.7	9.1	9.8		11.3
Private	15.0	n. a.	22.0	9.9	7.2		n. a.

Table 1: The Education Systems of the EEC *(Continued)*

	NETHERLANDS			PORTUGAL		
	Prim.	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*	*Prim.*	*Low. Sec.*	*Upp. Sec.*
Number of schools						
Public (%)	35%	19%	23%	93%	75%	62%
N.	2 954	503	265	11 763	556	382
Private (%)	65%	81%	77%	7%	25%	38%
N.	5 511	2 102	892	924	186	236
Number of pupils						
Public (%)	31%	21%	20%	93%	90%	95%
N.	453 937	182 050	103 508	1 146 040	335 658	283 285
Private (%)	69%	79%	80%	7%	10%	5%
N.	993 839	690 159	417 857	88 253	36 991	14 622
Average size of schools						
Public	154	362	390	98	603	742
Private	180	328	468	96	199	62
Pupil/Teacher ratio						
Public	15.8	14.1	?	16.3	12.6	15.2
Private	17.3	?	?	16.8	10.3	7.8

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Table 1: The Education Systems of the EEC *(Continued)*

	SPAIN		UNITED KINGDOM	
	Prim. + + Low. Sec.	*Upp. Sec.*	*Prim.*	*Sec.L.+U.*
Number of schools				
Public (%)	72%	49%	91%	92%
N.	15 838	2 355	24 609	5 020
Private (%)	28%	51%	9%	8%
N.	6 181	2 488	2 544	436
Number of pupils				
Public (%)	65%	77%	95%	93%
N.	3 597 272	1 327 929	4 123 000	5 723 000
Private (%)	35%	23%	5%	7%
N.	1 978 247	406 280	199 000	378 000
Average size of schools				
Public	227	561	168	1 140
Private	320	163	787	803
Pupil/Teacher ratio				
Public	24.2	15.1	21.8	15.4
Private	23.9	15.4	14.2	10.0

CHAPTER 2: ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS

CHAPTER 2: ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Administration of the education systems comprises at least the following: a **legal aspect** (administration and distribution of competences), an **economic aspect** (financing of the schools) and an **ideological aspect** (aims and goals,curriculum). These aspects are of course in some respects intertwined but may for analytical purposes be described separately. Furthermore it appears to be meaningful to distinguish between three levels of administration, i.e. **central, regional** and **local**. When referring to the local level a distinction will be made between local educational authorities (municipal council and/or local administrative bodies) and the individual schools.

Finally these approaches combined with the dimensions: the financing of the schools, the curriculum and the day-to-day management of the schools will guide the overall description of the management of the education systems in the member countries.

TYPES OF ADMINISTRATION

In all the member countries the central government plays a key role in laying down the rules and setting up the frameworks of its national (public and private) education. But the degree of direct administration of all areas of the education systems differs significantly between the countries. Simplifying the matter you could talk about three main types of administration approaches in the administration of education systems.

1. A predominantly centralized system
2. A centralized-regionalized system
3. A predominantly decentralized system

CENTRALISED ADMINISTRATION

Clearly there are ways of administering all or major parts of the education system in a country which can be described as a predominantly centralized method. And this might of course be the case whether or not the the centralized way of managing comprises all aspects of the education system.

In GREECE they describe the situation in these words: "Although some of these reform measures (in 1985) have considerable impact on educational administration and government, it is still true that the Greek educational system is a rather centralised one."

In most cases the centralized way of managing the education system is characterized by central financing of the schools and a centrally decided curriculum. Normally the day-to-day managing of the school is never a concern of a central authority unless one takes the effect of external evaluation by inspectors into consideration. Then it could be claimed that external evaluation exercised by centrally employed inspectors represents a way of influencing the day-to-day managing of the school by central authorities.

In FRANCE the public education system at all levels is financed by the central government through regional and local directorates and offices. At the same time the content of the subjects is centrally worked out and decided upon and a central inspectorate controls the standards of the education at the different levels.
In spite of the fact that the FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY consists of a number of individual Länder with almost full autonomy on matters concerning basic education (primary and secondary) the education systems are managed in more or less the same way. At the level of the individual Land you may describe the system of administration as mainly a centralized system. The financing of the teachers' salaries is at all levels of education the responsibility of the Land. The setting-up, financing, organization, and administration of schools at primary level is however the responsibility of the local authorities. Schools at secondary level are financed by regional authorities (counties/cities).

In IRELAND the Department of Education is responsible for almost all educational activities. The Department: prescribes a common programme of instruction for all schools, prescribes the qualifications of the teachers, assesses teacher performance by an inspection system at central level, prescribes the general rules for the operation of the schools and plans school accommodation.

In ITALY the central government and the directorates in the Department of Education finance the schools, decide on the curriculum and inspect the schools by central or regional inspectors.

In PORTUGAL the central government and the Ministry of Education is currently implementing a number of reforms which aim at deconcentration of the administration of the educational system through establishing regional authorities which carry out the centrally decided rules and regulations. At the same time the reforms also aim at a stronger local participation and increasing autonomy.

SPAIN has tried to regionalize its centralized system of education by giving a number of autonomous regions the right to decide on some specified areas of the education system.

CENTRALISED — REGIONALISED ADMINISTRATION

Another type of administration of the education system could be labelled the centralised-regionalized method. There are different ways in which an administration system can

be perceived as regionalized. First of all a system can be regionalized in the sense that all the centrally decided rules and regulations are so to speak executed by regional authorities which carry out these decisions and therefore act as regional representatives of the central authorities (Ministry of Education). This kind of regionalization concerns the rights to execute decisions or supervise the educational practice but it does not include the rights to make the decisions at a regional level. In other words the regional authorities are not functioning as a political body towards the local authorities or the individual schools. It is a case of **deconcentration** of power to another (normally lower) level of administration.

Administration of the educational system in FRANCE is a good example of deconcentration of powers to a regional level. At regional level the Minister of Education is represented by the Recteur who is head of an administrative unit or district. The structure of this regional administration (Rectorat) is similar to the central adminstrative structure including: an inspectorate, various regional advisory councils, regional representatives of trust institutions, information and advisory services, school health service, etc.

In the second place regionalization means that all or some of the decisions concerning the administration of the schools are to be taken by regional authorities. Sometimes within the centrally decided frameworks but nevertheless with a certain degree of autonomy. This way of regionalizing the administration could be labelled decentralization as not only are the powers of central level decision-making given to the regional authority but there are also rights of decisions attached to the regional authority.

A localized way of administering the education system can be described in similar terms as regionalization.

At the level of general secondary education in DENMARK decentralization in the sense described took place in 1980. The regional authorities took over the economic responsibility for the schools in their region and consequently were given the rights to decide on all matters concerning the use of economic resources at these schools.

A similar situation can be found in ENGLAND and WALES. The Local Educational Authorities may be compared to regional authorities in other countries even if they do not in all cases comprise the same number of schools. The LEAs take most of the decisions concerning the use of economic resources, employment of teachers and other staff and up till the 1988 reforms on national curriculum also the content of the teaching at the schools.

DECENTRALISED ADMINISTRATION

The third type of administration system has initially been characterized as a predominantly decentralized system. As with regionalization there are different ways and degrees of decentralization. In a fully decentralized system all aspects of the administration should be placed either at local (municipal) or school level. None of the member countries in the EC has a degree of decentralization which can be said to meet these demands for a fully decentralized system.

At the same time it seems possible to describe an education system as predominantly decentralized even when the system in question displays a strong central feature like the financing of the individual school.

In DENMARK the financing and managing of the schools at primary and lower secondary education is the responsibility of the local authorities. But not all aspects of the education at this basic level is left to local decision. Decisions concerning the content of the teaching are to a great extent taken at central level by the Minister of Education. Recently new rules have been passed in Parliament on the administration of the schools and the effect of these new rules are described in the chapter on the school council.

In ENGLAND the latest reforms have made it possible for the individual school to opt out of the local educational system of administration and receive funds directly from central level (The Department of Education). All the same the English education systems is considered to be one of the most decentralised systems in the Commmunity. There is a long and strong tradition in England for a locally (regionally, see above) run education system at primary and secondary level. In recent years this tradition has been further developed by strengthening the influence of the school boards at each school (see Part II chapter 3).

In the table below the responsibilities at central, regional and local level for managing of the education system in the member countries are indicated. The meaning of the signs used in the table is explained below.

Table 2: Managing of the Education System

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
BELGIUM	Financing				
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
DENMARK	Financing	V	S	P	
	Curriculum	V + S		P	
	Day-to-Day Management				

1. The Minister of Education decides the aims and objects of the teaching and issues guidelines and curricula which the local authorities in most cases adopt as the basis for the teaching of the subjects. The local authority may, however, decide to write their own curricula.

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Collective body*
- V = *Vocational*
- S = *General Secondary*
- P = *Primary/Lower Sec.*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
FED. REP. GERMANY	Financing				
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
FRANCE	Financing	(at all levels of education)			
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				(the head of school)

Key:

- *Teachers' salaries*
- *Teachers' pensions*
- *Content (curriculum)*
- *Buildings, equipments*
- *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- *Individual body*
- *Other expenses*
- *Evaluation (inspection)*
- *Collective body*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
GREECE	Financing				
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
IRELAND	Financing				
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Collective body*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
ITALY	Financing			*	
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
LUXEMBOURG	Financing				
	Curriculum	P			S
	Day-to-Day Management				

* Some schools

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Collective body*
- P = *Primary*
- S = *Secondary*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
THE NETHERLANDS	Financing				
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
PORTUGAL	Financing			*	
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				

* Pre-school
Primary school

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Collective body*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
SPAIN	Financing		*		
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				
UNITED KINGDOM (England/Wales)	Financing	**		**	
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				

* Some schools in autonomous regions.

** 50% each.

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Collective body*

Table 2: Managing of the Education System *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*	*School*
UNITED KINGDOM (Scotland)	Financing	*		**	
	Curriculum				
	Day-to-Day Management				

* 25% of current expenditure + 50% of capital expenditure.

** 75% of current expenditure + 50% of capital expenditure.

Key:

- = *Teachers' salaries*
- = *Buildings, equipments*
- = *Other expenses*
- = *Teachers' pensions*
- = *Aims and goals of the teaching*
- = *Evaluation (inspection)*
- = *Content (curriculum)*
- = *Individual body*
- = *Collective body*

PART II

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

A comparison of the different Member States of the European Community, with regard to the administrative structure in schools, is based on an analysis of the three types of body:

- **the school council;**
- **the head of the school;**
- **the councils for educational and pedagogic coordination and guidance.**

To correctly compare these bodies account must be taken of the administrative context in which relations between the school and central or local authority take place, in each of the different countries, as well as the degree of autonomy the school has from this same authority.

Although frequently bodies may be similar with regard to structure and functions, they differ widely in the type of responsibility they have and the influence they exert in the school, depending on the degree of autonomy the school has, as a whole, from administrative power.

It is therefore important to cross check the information in PART II with that in chapter 2 on the administration of the education system in the 12 Community countries, to get a more realistic picture of how school administration is structured in each case.

Another important fact already mentioned in the INTRODUCTION is that *the comparison between states deals essentially with the administration of state and municipality maintained schools*. However, examples of administrative processes in private schools subsidised by the state will also be given in cases in which their presence in the education system is great enough and when there are significant differences.

It should be remembered that regulations for managing private schools are not usually the same as for state schools and sometimes there is no specific legislation. However, in the case of states in which there is a high percentage of non-state schools (such as the NETHERLANDS) there is a series of specific regulations which "the organising authorities" of the school have to comply with, if that school is subsidised (i.e. by the state). In SPAIN, in the case of these schools under contract, legislation applied is similar to that for official teaching.

CHAPTER 3 : STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

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As mentioned in the introduction, this comparative study refers only to the "official structure" (what school administration should be, based on legal texts), and not on the real structure whether formal or informal.

This means that the comparison between different countries is done essentially from the legislative point of view thus excluding extremely important components in the life of organisations such as the authority, power, leadership, interpersonal relations, climate and culture, etc.

However, if it is accepted that administrative structures defined by law set a model for running schools in each country, we can from its description and comparison glean some important information for defining a policy in this field.

TYPES OF BODY AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

The administration of primary and secondary schools of the 12 Member States, is carried out through a range of bodies (school council, head of school and his assistants, heads of department or group of disciplines, directors of the class, class councils, pedagogic council, parents' councils, pupils' council, etc.).

Although there are differences between Member States with regard to the name given to these bodies, as well as their internal characteristics and the way in which they function, they can be grouped according to three major criteria: formal aspects, composition and level of intervention :

Formal aspects:

From the formal point of view, two major types of body are found in schools:

— **collective bodies** that function as councils, normally in a collegiate fashion, and which guarantee representation of the different elements with interests in decisions to be taken within the scope of their competences;

— **individual bodies**, more executive in nature, frequently coordinating in a hierarchical or functional way and whose responsibilities (their own or through delegation) guarantee the daily running of the organisation.

The former are usually associated with a concern for encouraging "participation", "democracy", "representation of interests", "advice", "discussion". This is the case for example with the school council, the teachers' council, the class council, etc.

The latter deal with the task of "organisation and coordination", "exercise authority", "leadership", "control". This is usually the case with the head of the school (although there are exceptions — see chapter 5), and his support "staff", heads of department or groups of disciplines, etc.

However, it must be pointed out that there are some differences between the countries in the Community when it comes to the distribution of responsibilities among these two types of body: sometimes the collective body has a very limited influence on the running of the school and is reduced to advisory functions, while individual bodies are the fundamental structure of school administration; at other times the collective bodies are the decision-making centre, at different levels, in school organisation, and the individual bodies are sometimes emanations of the actual collective bodies, ensuring more the functions of coordination and management.

These differences are more marked in the two principal bodies, the "school council" and the "head of the school" (see chapters 4 and 5) and are generally the result of organisational models with different degrees of participation.

Composition:

Composition is according to the following types:

— Bodies made up of **representatives of the different members of the education community (teaching and non-teaching staff, pupils, parents, local authorities, representatives of the local community)**. These can be called the participative bodies such as, for example, the "school councils" or at a more restricted level the "class councils".

— Bodies made up **only of teachers**, particularly geared to intervening in management and teaching. This is the case with individual bodies who directly, or through delegation, ensure the responsibilities of administrative, financial and pedagogic management (for example, "head of the school", and his "assistants", "director of the year" or "of the class"), as well as steering councils and councils for pedagogic coordination ("pedagogic council" or "teachers' council"). the latter, besides being "technical bodies", are also, in certain states, bodies representing teachers' interests.

— Bodies made up **only of pupils, or only of parents, or only of teachers** (in the latter case those mentioned in last place under the previous category). These bodies are almost "corporations of interests" according to the type of member. These are the "pupils' councils", or "parents' councils" or "teachers' councils" which exist in many states although bearing different names.

Level of Intervention:

Talcott Parsons [1] suggested that in the structure of an organisation there are three major hierarchical levels — institutional, administrative (managerial) and technical — and that the different bodies of school administration can be grouped according to the position they occupy in this structure. This leads to :

— **In the institutional field**, the body that intervenes in defining educational policy in the school and within the framework of responsibilities attributed to the school (that is, within its margin of autonomy). In many states, it is the "school council" which intervenes principally in this field, through taking decisions on goals, objectives, and plans, programmes, regulations, etc. However, in states where the autonomy of schools (that which is officially granted) is less, the school council intervenes less. In this case, the "head of the school" intervenes in this field, principally through the interpretation and adaptation of legislation and regulations defined in other institutional departments (of central and local administration).

— **In the administrative field** major responsibilities lie with the head of the school who exercises them through his assistants and the teachers who are appointed to positions of intermediate management (heads of department or disciplinary groups, installations managers, class managers, etc.).

— **In the technical field (pedagogic and didactic)** responsibility lies essentially with teachers councils (or pedagogic councils), and to councils which group together teachers teaching the same disciplines and those teaching the same classes. However, in many states, teacher responsibility in this field is reduced to the role the head of the school (and his assistants) play as leaders and pedagogic animateurs.

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[1] Talcott Parsons, *Structure and Process in Modern Societies*, Illinois, Free Press, 1960. N.J. Printer used this scale to describe the education system administration (government, administration, schools) in is article "Administrative positions: primary and secondary schools", in *The International Enciclopedia of Education*, Oxford, 1985. Although this rank distribution does not fit the structure of school organizations in all member states, it seems useful to outline the influence and power areas of the main school managing bodies. In spite of this, and in pratical terms, many of these bodies act in more than one level.

Table 1 shows the possible groupings:

BODIES	TYPE	COMPOSITION	LEVEL OF INTERVENTION
SCHOOL COUNCIL	collective	members of different origin	institutional
HEAD OF SCHOOL (AND ASSISTANTS)	individual (sometimes part of team)	teachers (possibly other education specialist)	administrative and in some cases institutional
INTER. MANAGEMENT (DISCIPLINES, YEAR CLASS, INSTALLATIONS)	individual	teachers	administrative and specialist (pedagogic)
TEACHERS' COUNCILS (SCHOOL, DISCIPLINES, CLASSES)	collective	teachers (and in some situations, parents and pupils)	specialist (sometimes institutional)
PARENTS' COUNCILS (SCHOOL/CLASS)	collective	parents	influence decisions at different levels
PUPILS' COUNCILS	collective	pupils	influence decisions at different levels

AREAS OF INFLUENCE

Examining existing bodies in each country, as well as their composition, reveals several "areas of influence" where **parents**, **administration** (local or central), **teachers** and **pupils** participate in school government.

Within structures these influences are exerted through their presence in different bodies and the attributions and responsibilities conferred on them.

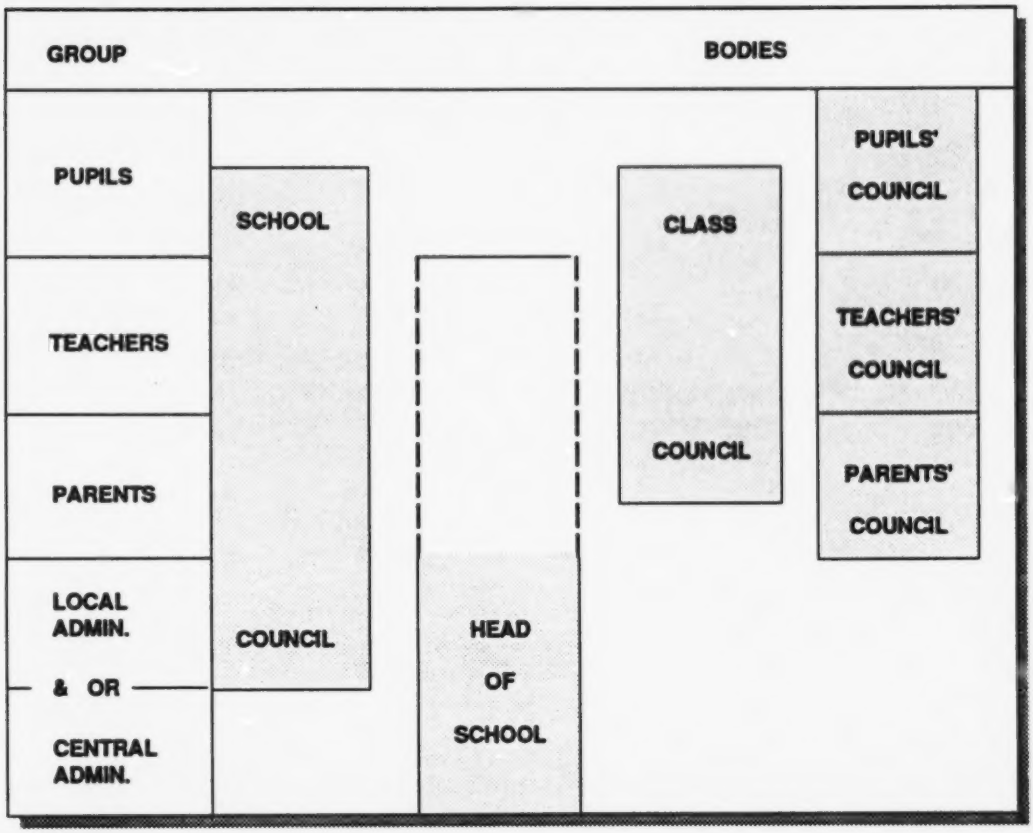
Thus one of the most distinct elements in school administration, in the Member States, is precisely the way in which these areas of influence are structured, although bearing in mind that not all bodies exert the same competences in one country as in another.

It is also known that the influence of parents, administration, teachers, and pupils does not lie only in carrying out the responsibilities inherent in the attributions legally assigned to them, nor is it only due to their participation in different bodies. Quite the contrary, these influences are subject to multiple informal processes, and are the result, among other things, of who happens to be in a particular position at a particular time and individual and

organisational characteristics — which vary from school to school. However, a comparison between states can only be done using legal provisions and their formal influence on the structures used to govern the school as a reference.

In the following table the principal areas of influence are given for the different education "partners" in the administrative bodies of schools.

Table 2: Bodies where the influence of Administration, Teachers, Parents and Pupils can be exerted



Note: the dotted line indicates that influence is possible, but this does not reflect the most common situation.

Table 3: Main Bodies in the Language of each Member State

	SCHOOL COUNCIL	HEAD OF SCHOOL	TEACHERS ' COUNCIL
B	(FR.) CONSEIL SCOLAIRE (D.) SCHOOLRAAD	(FR.) CHEF D' ETABLISSEMENT (D.) INTELLINGSHOOF OR SCHOOLHOOFD	(FR.) COLLEGE PEDAGOGIQUE (D.) PEDAGOGISCH COLLEGE
D	SCHULKONFERENZ (OR SCHULAUSSCHUB OR SCHULFORUM)	SCHULLEITER	LEHRERKONFERENZ
DK	SKOLEBESTYRELSE	SKOLELEDER	PÆDAGOGISK RÅD
E	CONSEJO ESCOLAR	DIRECTOR DE CENTRO	CLAUSTRO
FR	CONSEIL D' ECOLE (prim.) CONSEIL D' ADMINISTRATION (sec.)	DIRECTEUR (prim.) PROVISEUR (or) PRINCIPAL (sec.)	CONSEIL DES MAITRES (prim.) CONSEIL DES PROFESSEURS
GR	SCHOLIKO SYMVOULIO	DIEFTHINTIS SCHOLIOU	SYLLOGOS DIDASKONTON
IRL	BOARD OF MANAGEMENT	PRINCIPAL TEACHER	—
I	CONSIGLIO DI CIRCOLO (prim.) CONSIGLIO D' ISTITUTO (sec.)	DIRETTORE DIDATTICO (prim.) PRESIDE (sec.)	COLLEGIO DEI DOCENTI
L	CONSEIL D' EDUCATION (sec.)	DIRECTEUR (sec.)	—
NL	(*)	DIRECTEUR (prim.) DIRECTEUR/RECTOR (sec.)	—
P (current legislation)	(there is no body with equivalent attributions)	DIRECTOR (prim.) PRESIDENTE DO CONSELHO DIRECTIVO (collegiate body in sec.)	CONSELHO ESCOLAR (prim.) CONSELHO PEDAGÓGICO (sec.)
P (new legislation)	CONSELHO DE ÁREA ESCOLAR (prim.) CONSELHO DE ESCOLA (sec.)	DIRECTOR EXECUTIVO	CONSELHO PEDAGÓGICO
UK	GOVERNING BODY (Eng.) SCHOOL BOARD (Scot.)	HEADTEACHER	—

(*) *In the NETHERLANDS the "school council" responsibilities are exerted directly by the authority on which the school depends upon (bevoegd gezag). In the school exists a participation body (medezeggenschapsraad) with advisory functions.*

CHAPTER 4: THE SCHOOL COUNCIL

CHAPTER 4: THE SCHOOL COUNCIL

A school council as a body for extended participation (teachers, pupils, parents, local authorities, other members of the community) seems to date in some European countries from the beginning of the seventies and to a certain extent is linked to the "participative movement" created as a result of May 1968 in France.

Although the institutionalisation process of this body varies greatly from country to country, depending on its historic context and the existing school system administration, in general the school council has moved from being an advisory body serving as a support to the head of the school to an essentially deliberative body, responsible for the more important decisions for educational guidance in the school.

Nowadays, the different Member States have reached different stages of development with regard to the type of responsibilities and decision-making authority that legislation gives to school councils. However, as we shall see, there seems to be an obvious correspondence between increasing the decision-making authority of the council, the process of administrative decentralisation and granting greater autonomy to schools.

The deliberative authority of the school council was always greater in the more decentralised countries and movements currently underway to increase administrative, financial and pedagogic autonomy of the school have been systematically accompanied by an obvious strengthening of decision-making authority of these councils.

Another highly distinctive element in the characteristics of the school council is the degree of influence that parents exert on this body. Here also situations vary greatly and are now facing radical change.

Briefly, the presence of parents in the school council was (initially undertaken in the seventies) at two different levels: in some cases (DENMARK, ENGLAND and WALES, for example), the fundamental objective was allowing the parents of pupils to be informed and control certain aspects of the overall running of the school and its results; in others (FRANCE, SPAIN), parent participation was based on one general principle that recognised the need to encourage collaboration between the school and the family without guaranteeing parents any effective power in control and intervention.

Nowadays, the situation has changed in both cases and the tendency is to have parents participate (the degree to which they are represented depends on the state) together with other "partners", in governing the actual school: defining objectives, establishing regulations, deliberating on a wide range of questions (concerning budget, curricula, discipline, staff, etc.), approving, controlling and evaluating activity plans, guaranteeing a link with the community, etc.

Parent participation in governing the school (which is different to what is done, often informally, in encouraging peri or post-school educational activities, or actions aiming at the pupil follow-up in the class council) takes place fundamentally in the school council. Parent participation is sometimes a source of potential conflict with teachers who feel their own specific professional field will be invaded and the relative pedagogic autonomy which traditionally they have had may be queried.

Two problems related to these attributions and the composition of this body, which has been described briefly, serve as a "backdrop" to describe and compare administrative structure of schools in the 12 Community countries.

We will begin by examining the composition and operations of the school council and then characterise its major attributions and responsibilities, revealing the most significant similarities and differences.

The information obtained per state is found on table 5 and 6.

COMPOSITION AND RUNNING OF THE SCHOOL COUNCIL

Currently, all the member states of the European Community have, with the exception of two Länder in GERMANY and PORTUGAL, according to legislation in force, a body of this type in state and municipality maintained schools although the names (see table 4), composition, responsibilities and attributions are sometimes different (see tables 5 and 6). the particular case of the NETHERLANDS should also be outlined where the administration features of the education system make the comparison with the other Member States rather difficult.

In GERMANY the school council does not exist in two Länder. In those, the main advisory body is the teachers' council (Gesamtkonferenz) which includes parents' and pupils' representatives.

In the NETHERLANDS (as mentioned above) school administration is divided into different communities (catholic, protestant, private secular), municipal authorities and the state (only some secondary schools and till 1992).
Public non state schools are directly managed by the school council that exerts the "school council" functions.
Private schools (the majority of schools) are managed by a "school council" representing the competent authority (bevoegd gezag). This council that exerts its authority over one or more schools is composed of representatives of the local community, parents and representatives of economic and cultural interests. It is this which engages teachers, appoints and dismisses the school head, manages the funds provided by the state, settles criteria for pupils' enrollment (in private schools), etc.

Apart from this "school council" (as an external body) each school has a "participation body" (Medezeggenschapsraad), composed of teachers, parents and pupils with advisory functions.

In PORTUGAL the lack of this type of body is due to the actual characteristics of the process of change in school administration following the 25 April 1974 revolution. In current legislation the responsibilities of the school council are exercised in secondary teaching by several collegiate bodies, in particular the "Conselho Directivo" (a body for the direction and management of the school in which teachers, pupils from secondary school level and non-teaching staff are represented) Pedagogical Council and the "Conselho Consultivo" (a body which does not exist in all schools, but represents the different members of the education community, with advisory functions and a not very effective role). In primary education there is the "school council", with identical functions, but which is made up only of teachers. Legislation on education reform is being completed, altering the school administrative system (both for primary and secondary education) which among other things envisages a body of the school council type, similar at both levels.

In most Member States, there are no substantial differences between the regulations for the school council in primary and secondary teaching, except in BELGIUM (till April 1991) and LUXEMBOURG (that don't have a school council at the primary level) and FRANCE (where its composition and functions are rather different).

In ITALY, at primary school, there is not a council for each school, but only for the school area ("consiglio di circolo"). This "circolo" corresponds to a set of schools where no more than 60 teachers work. Each "circolo" also has a single school head.

In PORTUGAL, in accordance with the new legislation, primary school are also grouped in "school areas" in terms of their management.

Normally, the **number of members in the council** varies depending on the size of the school (total number of pupils, or total number of teachers, according to the country) and the level of teaching, and it may, for example, vary from 10 to 13 members, as in DENMARK (one of the states which has smaller councils), from 24 to 30, in secondary schools in FRANCE (one of the states which has the largest councils),or even 52 in the largest schools of some Länder in GERMANY.

Teachers, parents and the **head of the school** are always represented on the council. Generally **pupils** are only represented in upper secondary schools. In DENMARK, pupils at the Folkeskole (which takes pupils up to the ninth or tenth year of schooling) are normally represented on the council by pupils in the last years at school.

Besides these "natural" members, **representatives of local authority** are also frequently found (except in BELGIUM, in some Länder of GERMANY, ITALY, LUXEMBOURG) and, less frequently, **representatives of non-teaching staff** (only in FRANCE, in two Länder of GERMANY, ITALY, PORTUGAL and SPAIN. In DENMARK, places attributed to the staff of the school may be occupied indiscriminately by teachers or non-teachers).

In GERMANY, the absence of the local authority representative in the school council is determined by the fact that each school depends, from an administrative point of view, on a local authority (the "Schulträger"), with whom the school head has to co-operate and to whom he must account for the daily management (except on pedagogic matters). However, in some Länder this local representative can be invited to participate in meetings when discussing matters related to his activity.

Finally, other representatives of the community, namely those connected to economic and cultural activities, appear on school councils in BELGIUM, ENGLAND, WALES and SCOTLAND, where they have a significant number of places co-opted by the council (although in a lower number in SCOTLAND). In IRELAND these members are appointed by the "patron" of the school. In PORTUGAL, and according to new legislation, there will be a representative of the social and economic organizations of that very area. In FRANCE, in secondary schools, one or two "qualified personalities" are also part of the council appointed by regional administrative services.

Another aspect included in the comparative examination, in relation to the administrative body of the school, concerns the **number of places allotted to each type of member.**

Teachers and parents are members who, normally, have more places (except in IRELAND and in ENGLAND and WALES), although together they do not always make up a majority, as is the case apart from the countries already mentioned, in FRANCE at secondary level and sometimes in SPAIN (although with a slight difference).

In FRANCE, the school council in secondary education (collèges and lycées) has a tripartite composition including: representatives of public bodies (in which are included the head of the school and his staff, representatives of local and regional administration), and elected representatives of staff (teachers and administrative and service staff); elected representatives of the users (parents and pupils).
In the last third, it should be remembered that in secondary education (lycées) the number of representatives of parents drops (2 to 3 places), compared to the other school levels, pupil representation being increased by the same number of places.

In ENGLAND and WALES and as a result of the Educational Reform Act of 1988, school

councils in the grant-maintained schools may be made up of 5 parents' representatives, at least one but not more than two teachers, the head of the school, as one of his duties, and by "first governors" representing the local community, co-opted by the remaining members of the school council (or chosen by the founding organism of the school, in the case of voluntary schools). These governors, representing the community, should always be equal in number or greater than the total of the other members.

***Note:** "Grant-maintained schools" are schools which are no longer financed by local authorities — LEA — and are financed directly by central government.*

In SCOTLAND, the "School Boards Act 1988" has created a network of "school councils". Not all schools have these councils yet, as, in some cases, it was not possible to elect a sufficient number of parents' representatives. Other than parents, there are two other categories of members on "school council": teachers' representatives and community members co-opted by the council. However, the parents always form the majority of members.

But where the number of places is particularly significant is in the **relative proportion of teachers to parents.**

There are three types of situation:

— The number of places attributed to teachers' representatives is **greater** than that attributed to parents. This is the case in GERMANY (in four Länder), GREECE, LUXEMBOURG, PORTUGAL (recent legislation), and SPAIN. However, in these Member States, and if we exclude PORTUGAL, parents and pupils representatives are generally in the same number as teachers.

— The number of places attributed to teachers' representatives is **equal** to that attributed to parents. This is the case in FRANCE (secondary), GERMANY (in other Länder) and ITALY.

— The number of places attributed to teachers' representatives is **lower** than that attributed to parents. This is the case in BELGIUM, DENMARK, IRELAND, UNITED KINGDOM.

Another important difference between Member States concerns the presidency of the school council. In most countries this position is occupied by the head of the school as an inherent part of his duties. However, this is not the case in DENMARK or ITALY, where the presidency must be attributed to a parents' representative, elected by the council, and in IRELAND (appointed by the "patron"), in the UNITED KINGDOM (where the law expressly states that it may not be a teacher). In PORTUGAL (new legislation) chairman is elected among its members; the head of school cannot be elected.

It should be emphasised that DENMARK is, in the European Community, the state in which parents have most influence on the school council. This influence was strengthened with recent parliamentary approval of legislation which changes the administration of schools (1 January 1990). Among the different changes decreed are those which reduce the power of teachers which the authorities still consider to be too great. In agreement with the new law, parents' representatives who alone, in most cases account for half of the total number of council members (7 out of 13), are the only members with the right to vote. The two teacher members of the council (who can be substituted by other non-teaching staff) do not necessarily have the right to vote, depending on local regulations. The same goes for pupils. The head of the school is responsible as secretary of the council and has no right to vote, but still maintains the executive power. Furthermore, this law while increasing the influence of parents in the school council also visibly strengthens the powers of the actual council as we shall see later.

There are no major differences in the **selection process for council representatives:** institutional representatives are appointed by the respective organisms or services; representatives of teachers, non-teaching staff, pupils and parents are elected by the respective bodies. The main exceptions are as follows: GREECE and PORTUGAL (in accordance with the new legislation proposal), in which parent representation is through members appointed by the parents' association; BELGIUM where teachers representatives are co-opted by other members of the council (representatives from parents and social, economic and cultural organizations);UNITED KINGDOM where sometimes, community representatives are co-opted by the council itself.

The length of mandate for members varies, ranging from, for example, 1 year in FRANCE, 2 years in SPAIN and LUXEMBOURG, 3 in ITALY, 4 in the UNITED KINGDOM, 4 in DENMARK (only for the parents, and 1 for staff and pupil representatives).

Finally, some comments follow on the process for running the school council.

There is no common ruling on the **regularity** of council meetings. In some Member States an ordinary meeting is held once every three months. In others once a month during the ten month school year.

In some Member States, smaller committees are created with duties usually linked to budgetary management, the application of certain disciplinary sanctions, or the preparation of council meetings. This is the case in SPAIN ("economic committee") in FRANCE, in secondary education ("standing committee"),and in ITALY ("executive board"). The head of the school always presides over these committees (even in ITALY where, as already mentioned, a parent presides over the school council) and they normally include a small number of representatives of teachers, parents and pupils (in secondary schools) with a place on the school council and sometimes local authority representatives, and in FRANCE others responsible for governing the school.

ATTRIBUTIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL COUNCIL

The school council is considered nowadays in most Member States (from the legal point of view, which is not always the case in practice), as the body responsible for defining and controlling the overall policy of the school to the extent to which autonomy allows, and in compliance with regulations established by the different levels of administration.

However, the importance of this body varies greatly from state to state and sometimes in the same state (such as in GERMANY different Länder or in SCOTLAND in comparison with ENGLAND and WALES). Firstly, because of the degree of autonomy the school enjoys in relation to local and central power. Secondly, by the way in which power and influence are divided up within the school between the school council, the head of the school and the structures representing teachers.

Comparing this body in the different member states requires an examination of the **type of predominant functions** of the school council (regulatory, advisory, control), as well as the **fields in which it exercises** these functions (administrative, organisational, financial, curricular, disciplinary, etc.).

These functions will now be examined using information gathered on the attribution and competences of this body in the different Community countries as a basis, shown on table 6 in summary form.

Firstly, the areas in which school councils in most member states intervene most significantly will be examined:

— *definition of goals and objectives;*
— *budgetary policy;*
— *internal regulations;*
— *disciplinary sanctions;*
— *relations with parents and other members of the community;*
— *control and evaluation.*

Mention will also be made briefly of more spontaneous intervention such as:

— *extra-curricular activity;*
— *acquisition of equipment and didactic material;*
— *use of school spaces outside school hours.*

Finally, school council intervention will be examined in two less common areas, but fairly significant for the development of this body in some countries.

— *pedagogic organisation, content and methods of teaching;*
— *appointment of head of school.*

Definition of goals and objectives:

This is one of the fundamental areas of intervention for the school council, although it does not always seem to be clearly enshrined in legislation in the different Member States. Besides this, there are significant differences in the way the council intervenes in this field, as well as in its margin of autonomy (internal and external).

In DENMARK, IRELAND, ENGLAND and WALES, council intervention in the definition of goals and objectives is clearly a matter for discussion and appears connected to the responsibility that parents (in the first case) and also other members of the community (in the other countries) share with local authorities, in determining school policy and government.

In DENMARK, the law on state schooling ("Folkeskoleloven") of 1989 determines that the council should decide on the criteria that school activities should comply with, defining its policy in writing for all the affairs of its school and it must rule on: teaching organisation, number of lessons, distribution of pupils in classes, "optional disciplines" which the school offers pupils, etc.); cooperation between the school and the family, information to parents on pupils; distribution of teaching services; extra-curricular activities. The decisions of the council should comply with the objectives defined by the municipal council, the supervising body in the municipal school system. Furthermore, the council should restrict itself to the general definition of policies and not interfere in the daily work and specific decisions which are the responsibility of the head of the school.

In ENGLAND AND WALES the school council sets, as part of the autonomy ascribed to local authorities, the priorities in the resources allocation for school. It also intervenes in the definition of the most suitable curriculum to the pupils. It is up to this council to decide on whether to include sex education in the school.

In other countries, intervention of the council in this area is more formal, as the school has to draw up plans and annual programmes defining the guiding principles of teaching activities in the school (its "educational project") and the way in which it implements its autonomy. This is the case in BELGIUM, FRANCE ("project d'établissement"), NETHERLANDS, PORTUGAL ("projecto educativo") — when new legislation on this comes into force — and SPAIN (" plan annual del centro").

In BELGIUM (secondary), the school council prepares and executes for the school a working programme in connection with a pedagogic project.

In FRANCE the school council decides on the principles of executing the pedagogic and educational autonomy of the school. In agreement with article 18 of the framework law dated

14 July 1989 (Loi d'orientation sur l'éducation), schools for all levels of teaching draw up a school project which defines modalities for implementing national objectives and programmes, indicating the school and peri-school activities envisaged for this purpose. "Members of the education committee are associated in drawing up the project which is adopted by the school council which, with regard to the pedagogic aspects of the project, should decide in accordance with pedagogic teams".

In the NETHERLANDS the education project is intended to draw the major lines the school should follow in order to achieve the objectives established on general law. It was ruled for the 1st time in 1981 for Secondary Education and in1985 for Primary Education.

In PORTUGAL, the law defining the legal system for school autonomy in post-primary level (decree Law 43/89, dated 3 February 1989) establishes that "the autonomy of the school is put into practice in the elaboration of its own education project, constituted and executed in a participative way, within the principles of the responsibility of the different protagonists in school life and its adaptation to the characteristics and resources of the school and support of the community of which it is part". According to the law which will alter the administrative system of the school (nearing completion) it is defined that this "education project" must be approved by the school council.

In SPAIN the school council should approve and evaluate general school programming which is drawn up by a managing team, having heard the opinion of the teachers council ("claustro"). This programming/plan is one of the means by which administration aims to promote the participation processes of different members of the education community and increase the internal efficiency of the school, although some authors, based on case studies done, consider that this provision is far from achieving its objectives.

In the remaining Member States, intervention of the school council in defining the goals and objectives is far more tenuous and when it is formulated is restricted to an advisory function as is the case for example in ITALY where the council should **give its opinion** on the running of the school from the didactic and administrative points of view.

In GERMANY although the definition of school aims and goals depends upon each state (Land) responsibles, the school council can in some cases give opinion on curriculum development and pupils assessment; it also plans activities for non-teaching times or to fulfil specific educational needs. But, in general terms, this body has a merely consultative role.

In SCOTLAND the function of the "school-council" is essentially consultative and, in some cases, it exerts a supervising and monitoring role. The purpose of inquiring parents' points of view on school matters is also assured through this body.

Budgetary policy:

This is one of the traditional areas of intervention for school councils in the different Community states. For a long time, the rigid criteria on which the attribution of funds was based, formal restraints on establishing the budget and its management, the impossibility of schools having their own funds, meant that intervention of the school council in this field was restricted to formalising "participation without consequence" of the different members of the education community.

However, since there has been an obvious reinforcement of school financial autonomy, as is the case today in many countries (FRANCE, PORTUGAL, SPAIN, ENGLAND and WALES), the involvement of the council in this area takes on a new significance.

On one hand, it is in this field that there is greater coordination between decentralisation (or redecentralisation) and community participation. That is, the greater the autonomy, the greater the power of the members of the community outside the school (parents, representatives of economic activities, tax payers in general).

Furthermore, the internal reinforcement of council powers in the definition and execution of a budgetary policy is faced by administration as the way of guaranteeing control of the correct management of public monies and the efficiency of its own investments.

In general the school council **approves the budget**, based on a proposal almost always drawn up by the head of the school. This is what happens in BELGIUM, DENMARK, FRANCE (in secondary education), IRELAND, SPAIN, ENGLAND and WALES. In SCOTLAND, the "school council" only approves headteacher's plan on about 2% of total budget. In the case of ITALY, it is the sub-committee of the council, the "executive committee" which gives the first outline which should have the approval of the council plenary. In LUXEMBOURG, the school council ("conseil d'éducation") gives advice upon the annual budget proposal which must be approved by the Ministry of Education.

In GERMANY, in spite of the existing differences between the several Länder, it can be asserted that the school council seldom participates in the budgetary management, which is an attribution of the school head in close co-operation with local authority ("Schulträger"). The "Schulträger" is responsible for the financing of school current expenses, as well as for expenses connected with building maintenance, equipment, acquisition, school transports, non-teaching staff wages, etc.

In some states the council participates in actual budgetary management: in ITALY, SPAIN through sub-committees working with this body; in IRELAND, ENGLAND and WALES, although administration of funds is the responsibility of the council, it can be delegated to the actual head of the school.

In GREECE the school council ("Scholiko Symvoulio") doesn't interfere with the working out of the budget or with school financial management. That attribution is ascribed to a school committee ("scholiki epitropi") which comprises several schools composed of the municipality mayor or his representative, the school heads, one Parents´Association representative and one pupils´council representative (in secondary schools).
This committee is responsible for the financial management regarding equipment; school building maintenance and restoration; and book aquisition for the library.
It should be pointed out, on this subject, that school does not receive any funds directly from state, but only through the municipality to which are assigned the necessary sums to assure the running of the school.

In PORTUGAL, in secondary education, the approval and management of the budget is the responsibility of the "administrative council" made up of two members of the steering council and by the head of administrative services. The law altering the administration of secondary schools envisages maintaining this body, but approval for the budget will become the responsibility of the school council.

In ENGLAND and WALES there is a higher degree of school council intervention in budgetary management, principally after approval of the ERA (Education Reform Act) in 1988. Many of the responsibilities that belonged to the Local Education Authorities (LEA) were transferred, in the state schools, to school councils, now responsible for managing most of school spending, particularly the costs of staff, manuals and teaching material and also, costs for building and equipment maintenance. Investment costs are excluded. The school council is free to allocate the resources in the budget according to the needs and priorities of teaching material (which includes determining the number of teaching and non-teaching staff). In the grant-maintained schools (schools which are no longer financed by the LEA and receive funds required for running the school direct from central government) the school council is responsible for all areas of school management, including the use of subsidies and the allocation of teachers. Besides this the LEA should transfer all assets which it owns or holds and which are necessary for running the school to the school council.

Internal regulations:

This is one of the areas in which the council exercises its **normative function** more explicitly, although decisions may only be made in compliance with legislation and regulations in force.

In some states (BELGIUM, DENMARK, FRANCE, SPAIN and in the future PORTUGAL) the school council is expressly responsible for approving a regulation while in other states this in general refers to defining the regulations for running the school. In LUXEMBOURG, the school council participates in the amendment and up-dating of the internal and disciplinary regulation prescribed by the Ministry of Education.

Disciplinary sanctions for pupils:

Although the daily exercise of disciplinary authority over pupils is the responsibility of the head of the school and his delegate bodies (and by the rest of the teachers, in the classroom), the school council also has responsibilities in this field.

Apart from defining criteria, and internal regulations and sanctions, as well as examining cases that are put forward, it is also frequently the council that decides on the application of the more serious sanctions which are the responsibility of the school (FRANCE, ITALY, SPAIN). In FRANCE and ITALY this disciplinary task is ascribed to sub-committees of the council which for this purpose become a "disciplinary council".

Relations with parents of pupils and other members of the community:

The presence of parents' representatives and other sectors of the community on the school council makes this an important area of intervention in many of the Community countries.

Intervention can be in the form of information or advice, through the council, of the different members of the community, or the determination of criteria and approval of initiatives aiming to establish relationships with the exterior.

With regard to *information and consultation involving the different members of the community*, it should be remembered that besides the need to exercise its responsibilities (already mentioned) the council can in general get information, give suggestions and issue opinions on all fields related to running the school and its results. This fact naturally makes one of the best areas for establishing and encouraging school relations with the surrounding environment.

In some states this information involves the council drawing up and/or approving an annual report on the school activities and its results (FRANCE, IRELAND, ITALY, LUXEMBOURG, PORTUGAL [with new legislation], SPAIN, ENGLAND and WALES).

In ENGLAND and WALES the school council draws up a report once a year on the running of the school and the way it has been administered. This report is sent to the parents so that they can participate in the annual parents' meeting which is promoted by the school council. For this meeting to be able to take decisions the number of parents present must be equal to at least 20% of the pupils enrolled in the school.

In SCOTLAND the school council are obliged to report to parents and ascertain parents' views on matters concerning the school.

The definition of criteria and approval of initiative established to form the link between the school and the local community is also one of the responsibilities of the council in several Member States and is mentioned in legislation in BELGIUM, GERMANY, FRANCE, ITALY and SPAIN. In DENMARK, IRELAND and the UNITED KINGDOM this link concentrates particularly on cooperation between the school and the family.

Control and evaluation of running the school.

Control and evaluation of running the school arises fundamentally from the fact that the school council participates in defining the goals and objectives of its planning (see above the analysis done on this area). For this reason it is not always mentioned explicitly, as is also the case in states in which the school council is still essentially an advisory body, the case in GERMANY and LUXEMBOURG.

However, this competence is clearly expressed in the legislation of some states:

In DENMARK, the council should supervise the running of the school and its activities. For this purpose it can raise questions on all matters with the head of the school, but it cannot change decisions that he makes in exercising his responsibilities. However, it may define new guidelines that will mean altering the situation providing that these do not clash with the regulations issued by local authorities who supervise the school, nor with national legislation.

In FRANCE, in secondary education, the school council ("conseil d' administration") draws up a report on the pedagogic running of the school, namely concerning the carrying out of the school project, the settled goals and the achieved results.

In ITALY, the school council draws up a report on school running to be sent to the provincial administration.

In PORTUGAL (and in accordance with the new law), the school council should assess the reports on the situation which the head of the school must present every three months, and as a result make recommendations.

In SPAIN, the Organic Law on the Right to Education (LODE) establishes that the school council should be attributed with "supervising the general activities of the school in administrative and teaching aspects" while at the same time giving information for the annual report on the activities and general situation of the school.

In ENGLAND and WALES, members of the school council (and specifically the representatives of the parents and the community that make up the majority) should regularly visit the school, submitting eventual proposals or recommendations to the local education authority (LEA).

Participation in school running evaluation rests mainly with drawing up and approving the annual report as already mentioned.

Extra-curricular activities; acquisition of equipment and teaching materials; use of school spaces outside school hours are also some of the areas in which the school council is frequently asked to give an opinion in many of the Community countries, either to approve proposals or define criteria.

Having examined the areas in which, in most of the Member States, the responsibilities of the school council are exercised and having identified the major differences regarding the degree and type of intervention, two other less common areas will be now detailed. But it is rather different from the trend adopted to this body in certain states. These areas are:

— ***pedagogic organisation, teaching contents and methods;***
— ***the process of selecting the head of the school.***

Pedagogic organisation, teaching contents and methods:

This is a "frontier zone" between the attributions and competences of the school council, the head of the school and the teachers.

In recent years, an increase in pedagogic and didactic autonomy of the school, in some Community countries, has given greater responsibilities to the school council in this field.

However, this is still an area where there are major differences:

— In states where there is a flexible curriculum in which most programmes are defined locally, such as DENMARK, IRELAND, ENGLAND and WALES, the school council assumes effective responsibility in this field.

In DENMARK, the school council decides on teaching organisation, the number of lessons that pupils receive for each study level, the optional disciplines, special teaching, distribution of pupils in classes, distribution of teachers' services. The council also approves teaching material, including school books, based on a proposal presented by the head of the school. Finally, as regards the curriculum (within the general regulations defined by central authority which leave a wide margin for manoeuvre by local authorities) it is the school council that submits a proposal which should be approved by the "municipal council". The same goes for pedagogic experience.

In IRELAND, the school council decides on the organisation of the school timetable, bearing in mind the directives laid down by central government with regard to the minimum number of hours a week. In primary education, it is also the council that decides on all aspects related to the distribution of disciplines in the different school years, respective programmes, once central administration has determined the disciplinary areas which should exist, as well as objectives. In secondary education, the council has the same type of responsibilities, although a little more conditioned by the existence of obligatory disciplines and a national examination. These conditioning factors, which date from 1988, reflect the trend towards relative recentralisation in this field.

In ENGLAND and WALES the situation has been changing since approval of the ERA (Education Reform Act) in 1988 which, as already mentioned, reduces the degree of decentralisation which the education system had in the administrative and financial field as well as in the curricular field with the relevant introduction for the first time, of a programme for national studies, throughout obligatory schooling years, and the creation of national examinations. However, the school council continues to have major responsibilities in this area. Thus, in agreement with the above law, which is applied in primary and secondary schools in ENGLAND and WALES (but not in SCOTLAND), there is a division of responsibilities between the school council and the local education authorities (LEA) with regard to the compulsory nature of demands made by the national teaching programme: the LEA defines a policy for executing the programme in all schools subject to its administration, but it is the school council which decides the objectives of the programme and gives instructions to the head of the school for its organisation and execution. The council decides on the textbooks to be used and on other disciplines (besides the obligatory ones) that the school should administer.

In SCOTLAND the school council does not intervene in the school curriculum, but does approve the books and teaching material following a proposal made by the head of the school.

In other states, the process of administrative decentralisation and/or an increase in the autonomy of schools, has extended some of the competences of the school in this area. Although a large part of the pedagogic responsibilities still belong to the head of the school and his assistants, as well as to the teachers' councils (GREECE, PORTUGAL, SPAIN),

in some cases it is found that the school council is also beginning to intervene in this area. Currently, and in this group of countries, FRANCE is the most significant. In BELGIUM, GERMANY and ITALY, intervention capacity, although existing, is very limited and almost reduced to no more than advice.

In FRANCE, in primary teaching, the school council deliberates on the organisation of school time and is informed on the composition of classes, the principles used in the choice of manuals and teaching material. In secondary teaching, the council has to give an opinion on creating and suppressing sections and options, the principles that should guide the choice of manuals. But its principal function, in this field, lies in the fact that it is the body which decides on the principles with which the execution of pedagogic and educational autonomy should comply. In the same way, it should draw up an annual report on the pedagogic functioning of the school. To prepare decisions it should take in this field the council's "standing committee" composed of 17 members was restored (which had already worked between 1968 and 1977) which gives the necessary advice to the different parties involved and it should give an opinion on all pedagogic and educational questions raised to the council, in particular those regarding the exercise of autonomy. This committee is made up of 13 members of the school council: the head of the school, his assistant, the head of administrative services (gestionnaire), 2 representatives of local authorities, 3 for the teachers, one for non-teaching staff, 3 for parents and one for pupils.

In GERMANY although the situation varies greatly among the different Länder, in general the school council can play an advisory role regarding curricular questions and teaching methods and the organisation of the school timetable. However, in some Länder, the school council decides on the number of schoolday per week (5 or 6), on the principles leading homework coordination and assessment tests; the school material aquisition; the planning of activities beyond school time; and the principles ruling pupils assessments.

In ITALY, the school council should give a report on the school timetable, the way the school is run from the teaching point of view, and it can propose innovations to programme structure and content, but these must be approved by the teachers.

Appointment of head of the school:

This is also an area of school council intervention but it is not very common. It will be referred to in greater detail in the next chapter, when the processes for appointing the head of the school are compared. But since the responsibilities of the school council are being examined, there are different ways in which this study can intervene in the selection of a teacher for this position:

Table 4: Composition and Running of the "School Council"

	BELGIUM (only secondary)		DENMARK (primary + secondary)	FRANCE (primary)
	French	Dutch		
TOTAL MEMBERS	11	12 to 15, according to pupils number	10 to 13	varies depending on class
COMPOSITION: TEACHERS	—	3 or 4	2 (places for teaching and non-teaching staff)	all
PARENTS	3	4 or 5	5 or 7	1 per class
PUPILS	—	occasionally (upper secondary)	2	no
HEAD OF SCHOOL	1 as secretary of council with no right to vote	yes	as secretary of council with no right to vote	yes
NON-TEACHING STAFF	—	—	0 — 1	possibly, on advisory basis
LOCAL AUTHORITY REPRESENTATIVES	3	—	1 (at request of school council)	2
ECONOMIC/CULTURAL REPRESENTATIVES	4 or 5	4 or 5	no	no
OTHERS	no	no	no	—inspectors if wanted — others on advisory basis
PRESIDENCY	District Governor	In consensus or seniority	parents' representative, elected by council	head of school
DURATION' OF MANDATES	4 years	5 years	parents' mandate 4 years. Mandate of other elected members is one year.	1 year (elected representatives)

Notes:

BELGIUM (French): From 1991-92 on new legislation about school management in the French community will come into force and the "school council" will be replaced by a "participation council".

BELGIUM (Dutch): this body comprises a group of schools. The school heads participate in the council, but only one of them is entitled to vote. The social, economic and cultural associations representatives are co-opted by parents. Teachers are co-opted by parents and associations representatives. High secondary pupils may participate in the discussion of certain subjects but only with an advisory vote. From 1991 on this council will be set up in primary schools.

DENMARK: parents' representatives always have the right to vote and should always constitute the majority of voters. The representatives of teaching and non-teaching staff and of pupils only have the right to vote should the municipal council so decide. If they are given the vote the parents' representatives increase from 5 to 7 to maintain the majority.

FRANCE (primary): the representatives of medico-social services, specialised teaching, and those responsibly for post and peri-school activities attend without the right to vote, on an advisory basis and on the subjects which concern them. The representatives of the local authority are the mayor and the municipal councillor for school affairs.

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In DENMARK, the head of the school is appointed by the municipal council on a recommendation by the school council.

In GERMANY, in some Länder, the school council is involved with the appointment of the school head. But this is not the commonest situation.

In PORTUGAL, (after the new law comes into force) it is the school council that chooses through application the head of the school based on a proposal made by a selection jury appointed for the purpose from among its members. The school council can also renew the mandate or dismiss the school head.

In SPAIN the school council elects the head of the school from among the teachers who, if they meet with the necessary qualifications, decide to put forward their candidacy.

In ENGLAND and WALES the head of the school is appointed by the local education authority (LEA) bearing in mind the results of a selection jury provided by a committee composed of 3 members of the LEA and 3 from the school council.

In SCOTLAND the school council participates with an equal number of members than the educational authority in the selection committee of the head of the school.

Table 4: Composition and Running of the "School Council" *(continued)*

	FRANCE (secondary)	GERMANY (primary + secondary)	GREECE (primary + secondary)
TOTAL MEMBERS	24 to 30 (depending on type and size of school)	4 to 52 (according to the Land and in some cases to the size of the school)	varies, including all teachers
COMPOSITION: TEACHERS	6 or 7	yes (*)	all teachers
PARENTS	6 or 7 (5 in upper secondary)	yes (*)	Parents'Association representatives
PUPILS	2 or 3 (5 in upper secondary)	yes (*) (only secondary)	3 representatives from the pupils'council (only in secondary)
HEAD OF SCHOOL	yes, plus deputies	yes	yes, plus deputy
NON-TEACHING STAFF	2	(except in two Länder)	no
LOCAL AUTHORITY REPRESENTATIVES	1 to 3	(although in some Länder can be invited to some meetings)	1
ECONOMIC/CULTURAL REPRESENTATIVES		no	no
OTHERS	1 to 2 qualified members appointed by inspection	no	no
PRESIDENCY	head of school	head of school (in most of the Länder)	head of school
DURATION' OF MANDATES	1 year (elected representatives)	1 year for pupils and two for the other members, according to the Länder	permanent

Notes:
FRANCE (secondary): the parent representatives of the secondary upper school are less two than in the lower secondary school. At this level pupils have two more representatives (5 in total).
GERMANY (*): the composition and running of the "school council" varies from Land to Land. In some Länder the total of members is fixed, in others varies according to school size.
— as to composition, in 5 Länder teachers have half of the places;
— in 4 Länder, teachers have the same number of representatives as parents and pupils (1/3 each);
— in 2 Länder there is no school council. In one of them, parents and pupils are represented in "school council"; in the other they only participate in meetings related with the school-family interaction.
GREECE: parents' representatives are members of the parents association management committee. Besides the school council (SCHOLIKO SYMVOULIO) there is a school committee (SCHOLIKI EPITROPI) at municipal level with attributions in the field of financing management.

Table 4: Composition and Running of the "School Council" *(continued)*

	IRELAND (primary + secondary)	ITALY (primary + secondary)	LUXEMBOURG (only secondary)
TOTAL MEMBERS	6 to 8 (depending on type and size of school)	14 to 19 (depending on type and size of school)	9
COMPOSITION: **TEACHERS**	1 (and only in community schools with more than 7 teachers)	6 to 8	4
PARENTS	2 (and only in community schools)	6 to 8	2
PUPILS	no	3 to 4 (only upper secondary)	2
HEAD OF SCHOOL	yes	yes	yes
NON-TEACHING STAFF	no	1 to 2	no
LOCAL AUTHORITY REPRESENTATIVES	no	no	no
ECONOMIC/CULTURAL REPRESENTATIVES	no	no	no
OTHERS	3 to 4 members appointed by the "patron" of school	no	no
PRESIDENCY	appointed by "patron"	a parents´representative elected by council	head of school
DURATION´ OF MANDATES	4 years	3 years (elected representatives)	2 years

Notes:
IRELAND: "patron" is the authority (normally religious) for the school.
ITALY: in primary education there is a council for every school circle (area where no less than 40 and no more than 50 teachers work).
LUXEMBOURG: in primary education there is no "school council".

Table 4: Composition and Running of the "School Council" *(continued)*

	NETHERLANDS (primary + secondary)	PORTUGAL (primary — new legis.)	PORTUGAL (secondary — new legis.)
TOTAL MEMBERS	varies	14	18
COMPOSITION: **TEACHERS**	no	7	9
PARENTS	yes	3 representatives from Parents´Association	2 representatives from Pupils´Association
PUPILS	—	no	3 representatives from Pupils´Association
HEAD OF SCHOOL	no	yes, but with no right to vote	yes, but with no right to vote
NON-TEACHING STAFF	no	1	1
LOCAL AUTHORITY REPRESENTATIVES	yes	1	1
ECONOMIC/CULTURAL REPRESENTATIVES	yes	1 representative of cultural interests; 1 representative of economic interests	1 (cultural interests) 1 (economic interests)
OTHERS	eventually		
PRESIDENCY	elected member	1 teaching member elected by council for 1 year	1 teaching member elected by council for 1 year
DURATION´ OF MANDATES	—	4 years (1 year for parents' representatives)	4 years (1 year for parents' and pupils' representatives)

Notes:
NETHERLANDS: the "school council" does not have the same characteristics as in other Member States. It is an external body representing the relevant authority (bevoegd gezag) of the school.
PORTUGAL (primary): in primary teaching and in line with current legislation, there is a school council made up only of teachers. The features described in the table correspond with the content of a law that changes the administrative system of school, and which is in the final stages of completion.
If there is no parents´association in the school, the parents´representatives are elected for the purpose.
PORTUGAL (secondary): currently there is no equivalent body to the school council. Its duties are carried out partly by the "steering council" and by the "advisory council". The description given in this table corresponds with the content of a law that changes the administrative system of schools and which is in the final stages of completion.

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Table 4: Composition and Running of the "School Council" *(continued)*

	SPAIN (primary + secondary)	UNITED KINGDOM (ENGLAND and WALES) (primary + secondary)	UNITED KINGDOM (SCOTLAND) (primary + secondary)
TOTAL MEMBERS	8, 13 or 21 (depending on size of school)	9 to 19 (depending on type and size of school)	9 to 14 (depending on type and size of school)
COMPOSITION: TEACHERS	2, 4 or 8	1 to 2	1 to 3
PARENTS	2, 3, 4 or 5	2 to 5	4 to 7
PUPILS	2 or 3 (4 in upper secondary)	no	possibly
HEAD OF SCHOOL	yes + (2 other members of steering team)	yes	yes, no right to vote
NON-TEACHING STAFF	1 (in schools with 16 or more units)	no	no
LOCAL AUTHORITY REPRESENTATIVES	1	2 to 5	yes, with no right to vote
ECONOMIC/CULTURAL REPRESENTATIVES	—	(*)	2 to 3 co-opted by members of council
OTHERS	—	3 to 6 (*)	
PRESIDENCY	head of school	1 elected member, that is not a teacher	1 elected member that is not a teacher
DURATION OF MANDATES	2 years (elected members)	4 years	4 years

Notes:

SPAIN: representatives of parents and pupils in their whole may not be less than a third of total number of members. In Educação-Geral Básica (EGB) (General Basic Education) pupil representatives are elected from among those pupils in the upper school. The steering team only exists in school with 8 or more units.

UNITED KINGDOM (ENGLAND and WALES): (*) the 3 to 6 members are co-opted by the school council and may be partially appointed by the foundation controlling the school (if this is the case). Often these members are linked to the economic activities of the region.

UNITED KINGDOM (SCOTLAND): the co-opted members are usually persons with community functions.

Table 5: Principal Attributions of the "School Council"

ATTRIBUTIONS	BELGIUM (only sec.)		DENMARK (prim. sec.)	FRANCE		GERMANY (prim. sec.)	GREECE (prim. sec.)	IRELAND (prim. sec.)
	French	Dutch		(prim.	sec.)			
DEFINITION OF GOALS & OBJECTIVES	C/A	C/A	D	C/A	A	C	M	D
PEDAGOGIC ORG-ANISATION,CON-TENT & METHODS	C/A	C/D	D/Ev	I/C	I/C Ev	C	—	D
APPOINTMENT OF HEAD OF SCHOOL	—	—	C	—	—	—	—	—
BUDGETARY POLICY	C/A	C	A	—	A	A	—	A/D
SCHOOL RUNNING ANALYSIS	C	D	M	I	R	—	—	
INTERNAL REGULATIONS	A	A	A	A	A	A	C/R/D	
DISCIPLINARY SANCTIONS	—	—	—	—	D	D	—	
RELATIONS WITH PARENTS & OTHERS	C	D	D/C	I	D/C	D/C	M/D/C	D/C
EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES	C	D	D/C	D	A/C	D/C	C/I	
ACQUISITION OF EQUIPMENT & TEACHING MATERIAL	C	D	—	I	A	D/C	C	
USE OF SPACES OUTSIDE TEACHING HOURS	C	D	—	C/A	C/A	D/C	M/C	

Key:

A = "approves proposal"
C = "is consulted"; "issues a report"; "submits a proposal"
D = "decides" (determines; deliberates)
E = "elects"
Ev = "evaluates"
I = "is informed"
R = "elaborates/approves report"
M = "monitors"

BELGIUM: from April 1991 on, the school council will be set up in primary education with identical functions.
GERMANY: there is a certain degree of variation in the "school council" attribution among the several Länder. The situation drawn on this table is the commonest one.

Table 5: Principal Attributions of the "School Council" *(continued)*

ATTRIBUTIONS	ITALY (prim. sec.)	LUXEM-BOURG (only sec.)	NETHER-LANDS (prim. sec.)	PORTUGAL (prim. sec.)	SPAIN (prim. sec.)	UNITED KINGDOM (prim. sec.) England and Wales	UNITED KINGDOM (prim. sec.) Scotland
DEFINITION OF GOALS & OBJECTIVES	C	—	D/A	A	A/Ev	D	I/M
PEDAGOGIC ORG-ANISATION,CON-TENT & METHODS	C	C	D/R	—	Ev	D/Ev	I
APPOINTMENT OF HEAD OF SCHOOL	—	—	D	E	E	C	C/D
BUDGETARY POLICY	C	C	D/A	A	A/D	A/D	I A (2% of school budget)
SCHOOL RUNNING ANALYSIS	R	R	D/R	I/R	R	R/M	I/M
INTERNAL REGULATIONS	A	C	D/R	A	A		I/M
DISCIPLINARY SANCTIONS	D	—	D/A	—	D	—	I
RELATIONS WITH PARENTS & OTHERS	D/C	—	D/R	D	D/C	D/C	D/C
EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES	D	D	D/A	D	D/C		I
ACQUISITION OF EQUIPMENT & TEACHING MATERIAL	D	—	D/A	—	D/C		I A (2% of school budget)
USE OF SPACES OUTSIDE TEACHING HOURS	—	—	D/A	—	D/C		D

Key:

A = "approves proposal"
C = "is consulted"; "issues a report"; "submits a proposal"
D = "decides" (determines; deliberates)
E = "elects"
Ev = "evaluates"
I = "is informed"
R = "elaborates/approves report"
M = "monitors"

NETHERLANDS: the "school council" does not have the same characteristics as in other Member States. It is an external body representing the relevant authority (bevoegd gezag) of the school.

PORTUGAL: The description given in this table corresponds to the content of a law that changes the administrative system of schools and which is in the final stages of completion.

CHAPTER 5: THE HEAD OF THE SCHOOL

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The head of the school is still the central figure in school administration. Increasing the responsibilities of the school council, examined under the previous heading, did not decrease the importance of the head of the school, nor, in practice, his authority. He is responsible for the correct running of the school, for fulfilling regulations, achieving objectives, executing activities and control of discipline. He is the "Director", the "Head", the "Leader", the "Principal", the "President" [1] .

The strategic position he occupies within the different structures ensures him real control over the organisation and, frequently, greater authority than that formally attributed to him by legislation. It is the head of the school who has the fundamental information for taking decisions and he can use this to influence the running of other bodies.

But school administration has become an increasingly complex activity which in most cases is carried out in an unfavourable context and unstable environment. This complexity causes a wide range of practices and education management models which specialised literature (of which there is plenty) has examined and the contribution of which was decisive for devising theories and analysing practices of school management.

All this makes a comparison between Member States difficult, further exacerbated by the fact that discriminatory elements in establishing the characteristics of the head of the school do not lie in the structural and functional aspects but rather in the style of leadership, the type of management practised, the way in which he carries out his duties, the way in which authority is exerted, and also in the personal style, training, experience, etc..

Bearing in mind these conditioning factors, and remembering that only official-legal information is available, the following areas of comparison are defined for this body:

- **Appointment processes;**
- **Conditions for exercising the position;**
- **Support staff;**
- **Principal attributions;**
- **Training.**

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[1] Names mostly used in the several member states. "Director" is the commonest. The exceptions are the "Head", in UNITED KINGDOM (and in FRANCE, when refering to the general role); the "Leader", in DENMARK; the "Principal" in IRELAND and in FRANCE, in lower secondary (collège); the "President", in PORTUGAL, in secondary education (according to the in force legislation, but which will soon be amended), in ITALY, in secondary education too. (See names of this and other bodies, in each member state language, on ***Table 3***).

APPOINTMENT PROCESSES:

A rundown of the processes used in the different states for the appointment of head of the school is shown on table 6.

The first important aspect is that in all Member States the head of the school *is always a teacher* (except in FRANCE, where he can also be a school guidance specialist, an education councillor or inspector).

This fact is even more significant when considering opinions that claim that the school administration system should be closer to that of the management of companies and other public services meaning, for some, that this position should be professionalised. A "professional manager" in schools (who is not necessarily a teacher) is a topic that is being discussed in some states, particularly in the NETHERLANDS, with regard to increasing the autonomy of the school.

However, overriding opinion in all states, supported by innumerable theoretical and research works, tends to emphasise the specific nature of the school which makes it different from other organisations, and to claim the subordination of administrative criteria to pedagogic criteria in defining the efficiency of school management. Taking for granted the need for teachers responsible for management having specialised training in management techniques (which in some countries has led to the rapid development of training courses in this field, as will be explained later), the prevailing opinion considers the exercise of these duties is usually seen as an extension of the teaching duty.

This second aspect, in this comparison concerns the entity selecting the head of the school and the process used for appointment.

Differences in this field are the result of two types of factor: the entity on which the school depends for administration (state, local authorities, private contracted entities); the type of involvement the school enjoys in the process of selecting the head of the school.

Linking these two different factors the twelve Community countries can be placed into three groups depending on how the head of the school is selected:

— **hired by the Ministry, through selection or promotion;**
— **selected by the local education authority, with the participation of the school;**
— **elected (or chosen) by the school.**

In the **first group**, appointment to the position of head of the school is done through selection from a national list of candidates to which teachers have access if they have certain requirements and have passed specific examinations. This is usually a career with processes for its own graduation and promotion which is different to that of teachers.

Appointment to a school is done without any interference by local authority or members of the school, and depends on the place the candidate occupies on the list. If the head of

is a probationary year after which the head of the school is evaluated by an inspector, after which appointment becomes definitive, and the head of the school may remain in the position for as long as he pleases. If he wishes to change schools he is listed on a "transfer list" which is also in order of qualifications, but he is not subject to further examination.

In the **second group**, appointment of the head of the school depends on the local authorities and is normally done through **selection boards** on which there are members of the school council in the school where the position is to be filled (although the final decision always rests with the local authority).

In these cases selection is according to criteria which include on the one hand teaching qualifications but also a series of aptitudes demanded for the work of management, particularly personal characteristics for managing human resources and previous experience at the job (or as a deputy head of the school). Besides this, there are normally one or two probationary years before final contracting.

This second group of countries includes DENMARK, IRELAND, the NETHERLANDS (in public non-state schools), the UNITED KINGDOM .

In the NETHERLANDS the headteacher appointment process varies according to the authority the school depends upon. In state schools he is appointed by the Ministry of Education, in municipal schools by the municipal council. In private schools by the council that represents the authority the school depends upon.
In primary education the council appointing the head should listen to the opinions of the teachers.
In general, recruitment of the head carried on through the analysis of the replies to the advertisements issued on the press by the relevant authorities plus an interview granted to the applicants.
Furthermore, it is interesting to note that in the NETHERLANDS there is a regulation stipulating that whenever there are two candidates in state schools of different sexes who have the same requirements, preference should be given to the woman while the number of women in this position in state school continues to be lower than that of men.

In ENGLAND and WALES, the head of school is selected from a set of candidates by a selection committee: 3 members chosen by local education authority (LEA) and 3 school council members (primary education).
In secondary education, each body chooses 4 members for the section committee.

In SCOTLAND the head of the school is appointed by the regional educational authority upon recommendation of a selection committee composed in equal parts by representatives of the educational authority and of the "school council".

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the school wishes he can remain indefinitely in the school (unless disciplinary sanctions are imposed).

Among the Member States with this appointment system are BELGIUM, FRANCE (with differences between primary and secondary), GERMANY, GREECE, ITALY, LUXEMBOURG (only in secondary). However there are some more significant special features:

In BELGIUM, whenever the head of a school must be selected an appointment jury is set up to draw up a list of candidates according to their merits and qualifications. To be enrolled on this list candidates should obtain a certificate for taking pedagogic and administrative exams. These exams are organised by the Ministry and are different for primary, lower secondary and upper secondary.
In the case of subsidised private teaching, the head of the school is appointed by municipal or provincial councils, bearing in mind the qualifications demanded.

In FRANCE, recent legislation (1989) introduced radical changes in the status, training and appointment process for staff for directing primary and secondary schools.
In primary teaching the head of the school ("directeur") is a primary school teacher who is appointed to a "functional post" by the academy inspector from a list drawn up according to the aptitude of candidates ("liste d'aptitude"). The "directeurs" are not part of a career and may be dismissed from the position they occupy in the interests of the service.
For secondary teaching, two "staff bodies for direction" were created in secondary schools, divided into several classes, and from these are drawn the staff that will occupy the positions of head of the school or the deputy. However, this is a career in itself to which not only teachers have access but also school guidance specialists working in schools, education advisors and inspectors. The principle of initial compulsory training is also introduced for exercising this position (see later). Staff are hired after selection either through promotion or superior qualities (in the case of inspectors).

In GERMANY, although the head is appointed by the Ministry of Education of each Land other entities are also sometimes involved (depending on the Land and on the school type). In some Länder there is participation from local or intermediate educational authorities.
In others, the Schulträger (the responsible body for school financing) participates to a greater or lesser degree in the selection process; finally, in some Länder the "teachers' council" or the "school council" is heard or sends members to a selection panel.

In ITALY, access is through selection from a list in order of qualifications. The Ministry gives notification of positions vacant and teachers fulfilling the conditions demanded (teaching at the same level, having a minimum of 5 years service after appointment) may be candidates. The candidacy process includes a written and an oral examination which may eliminate those candidates who fall below the determined pass mark. Placements are made according to the order established on the graduated list based on the marks obtained. After appointment there

teachers representatives for a period of one year, at the end of which further elections take place.
Once elected, the teachers themselves select the president from among themselves, and the latter should be a qualified teacher ("profissionalizado").
In primary teaching, the head of the school is elected by the school council (which is made up only of teachers).
A law is nearing completion which will entirely alter the administrative system of schools. The appointment of the head of the school is made by choice of the school council (see composition in table 4), on a proposal made by the selection committee appointed for the purpose from among the council members. This council may dismiss the school head upon a decision of more than two thirds of its members.

CONDITIONS FOR EXERCISING DUTIES:

With regard to the **administrative status, conditions of employment and stability,** the position for head of school does not differ substantially from that of other teachers. In state schools, the principal difference between Member States results (as was the case for teachers in general) from whether or not they belong to the category of civil servants:

In IRELAND and the UNITED KINGDOM they do not have the status of civil servants and they are contracted locally. In BELGIUM, despite not being civil servants they have a similar status and are placed centrally. In the NETHERLANDS, only those belonging to the minority of state schools and who are civil servants and contracted by the Ministry of Education. The remainder do not have this status and are contracted either by municipal councils or by school councils who represent the entity supervising the school.

In remaining states, they have the status of civil servants, although not all are placed centrally, as is the case in GERMANY and DENMARK.

Furthermore, when the head of the school is a civil servant he is normally part of the teachers' career structure and his position of head of the school is considered to be a "functional post". However this is not the case in FRANCE, in secondary schools, where, since 1988, heads of schools have had a specific status and their own career structure.

A further two characteristics which define the conditions in which this post is exercised are: **reduction of teaching hours** and **additional salary**.

As a general principle, the head of the school continues to teach, although his teaching hours are gradually reduced as the size of the school increases. In schools with a large number of pupils this reduction in teaching hours may be total. Obviously this is the most frequent situation in secondary teaching.

In the same way, the head of the school receives a salary higher than that of the teachers. In most states this difference implies a varying supplement depending on the

Finally, the **third group**, to which PORTUGAL (in force legislation) and SPAIN belong, in which the head of the school and the respective managing team are **elected** in the school.

Before giving a more detailed description of the processes used in the two states to elect those responsible for school administration, it is important to remember that this system was introduced following political and social changes which, in each of these countries, restored a democratic regime (1974 in PORTUGAL, 1975/78 in SPAIN). During the previous political regimes, the appointment of the head of the school lay exclusively with the relevant minister, without any form of selection, although in the case of SPAIN this was done through a proposal from the regional services on which the school depended with information resulting from inspection and based on the opinion of the teachers' council and the assessors' council in which parents and pupils were represented.

In SPAIN, with the Organic Law on the Right to Education (LODE) of 1985, the head of the school is elected by the school council (see the composition on table 4). In lower secondary schools — the last cycle of EGB (Educación General Básica) — pupils' representatives are substituted for this purpose by parents' representatives.
Teachers at the school, with a permanent appointment, may be candidates providing they have at least 3 years teaching experience and have been teaching at the school for one year. Candidacy must be submitted 15 days prior to voting accompanied by the basic guidelines of their programme and their professional qualifications.
The head of the school is elected by the members of the school council and must obtain an absolute majority in direct, secret voting. The appointment is made by the provincial department of the Ministry of Education. Should there not be an absolute majority in the first round of voting, a further round of voting will take place 48 hours afterwards. If there is still no absolute majority, the provincial department of the Ministry may make a provisional appointment of a head of the school for a period of one year, (preferably selecting a teacher from the school). The same is the case if there are no candidates. The council may also submit a proposal to central administration for the dismissal of the head of the school, when there are grounds for this.

In PORTUGAL in secondary schools, and through the law in force which dates from 1976, (although it has undergone several changes and regulations), the position of head of the school does not actually exist. The duties in this position are carried out by a collegiate body ("o conselho directivo" — steering council), and in particular by the "president". The "conselho directivo" is made up of 3 to 5 teachers, one non-teaching staff representative and two pupils (in secondary), all elected by their representatives. Teachers are elected from a list. This list should be proposed by a minimum of 10 teachers and include at least two qualified teachers. The list elected is the one that obtains more than 50% of the votes, providing these represent at least 60% of voters, and a second round of voting will be held for the two lists obtaining most votes if neither of these obtains the required results. Should no lists be presented by the teachers, or at least two qualified teachers not be included, the administration appoints the

size of the school. The percentage of this supplement above the basic teachers salary may vary, for example, in ENGLAND and WALES between 10% and 50%, or in DENMARK, between 10% and 30%, while in PORTUGAL, it is almost "symbolic", and it is less than 10%. In other states, such as BELGIUM, FRANCE and GERMANY, the income is calculated according to a special table for this purpose, also varying with the degree of teaching and the size of the school.

SUPPORT STAFF:

In all Member States, and principally in secondary education, the head of the school is assisted in his duties by one or more deputies, to whom he delegates certain responsibilities.

One of these deputies, the deputy head of the school, is his legal replacement and, normally (except in countries where appointment is made through elections), is a "position" in the career structure, or in rising to the position of head of the school.

In general, the deputy is appointed by the same entity and according to the same procedure as used for the head of the school, although there are some special situations.

In ITALY the deputy head of the school is selected by the head of the school from among a group of collaborators elected by the teachers' council ("collegio dei docenti"), from among its members. The number of collaborators may vary from one (in schools with up to 200 pupils) to 4 (in schools with more than 900 pupils), but only if he is selected as a deputy can he benefit from a reduction in teaching hours and carry out executive duties. The others are responsible for the duties of advisors.

In PORTUGAL, teachers elected by the "steering council" distribute among themselves, through a secret ballot, the different positions in the steering team: president, deputy president, secretary (and in larger schools, two more members).
The legislation which is going to change this administrative system (which has already been referred to several times) envisages that the head of the school will select his deputies preferably from among the teachers in the school.

In SPAIN, the head of the school exercises his duties as part of a "steering team" which includes another two teachers: the "head of studies", responsible for coordinating academic activities, and the "secretary", responsible for administrative and financial tasks. Both are elected by the school council, but following a proposal made by the head of the school. There may also be a deputy head of the school and a deputy secretary if this is established in the internal regulations of the school. In schools having less than eight units there is no "steering team".

Apart from the deputies who directly assist the head of the school in carrying out their duties, there are also positions in **intermediate management** which guarantee the **coordination of departments or disciplinary matters, coordination of activities, of teachers and pupils in the same school year, or of a cycle of studies, coordination of teachers and pupils in the same class.**

This is an area where comparison is particularly difficult not only because of the different situations encountered, but also because, in general, these are duties which are less regulated and the organisation of which varies sometimes from school to school. Information received on these bodies was also less complete.

However, it should be emphasised that teachers carrying out the duties of coordination, as well as their participation in **"councils for disciplinary matters"** and **"the class council"**, acts as an organisational support for action taken by the head of the school, and this is a common factor in most of the Member States.

Furthermore, these functions fall into one of the fields for redefinition of the teaching profession, with the need to develop the practices of organisation and relations with others which go further than the limited framework of teacher/pupil relations, in the classroom, and to which, for a long time, teaching was restricted.

In this field, one function which is becoming of increasing importance is the **socio-pedagogic observation of pupils in a class by one of their teachers**[2] . This teacher is a spokesman for the pupils and their families and gives support and advice on purely school aspects as well as on other general education aspects.

In DENMARK, in "Folkeskole" (primary teaching and lower secondary up to the tenth year) there is a teacher who observes the class throughout the whole (or most of) the ten years of school. This teacher, normally the Danish teacher, thus knows each of the pupils thoroughly (character, aptitude, ambitions), as well as the pupils parents and the family environment, and is thus able to establish greater contact between the school and the family and give better support to pupils.
From the 5th school year on, each class has one hour a week in its timetable for open discussion of various topics with this "class teacher".

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[2] This teacher is appointed in different ways throughout the several Member States ("head of class", "class teacher" (tutor), "principal", etc.). In the states where the single teacher system is practised at primary level, this role is not ascribed to a single position and is part of the tasks attributed to the head and the teacher.

Finally, apart from the intermediate management bodies, the head of the secondary school, also has **the support of administrative services and the respective staff, and sometimes of other specialists (school guidance, school social work, school doctor**, etc.).

PRINCIPAL ATTRIBUTIONS:

From the formal-legal point of view, there are no major differences between the functions attributed to the head of the school in the different Community countries.

Using an inventory of responsibilities that legislation in each of the Member States attributes to the head of the school, four major common fields are identified in which the following functions are carried out:

- **— administrative and financial**
- **— pedagogic and educational**
- **— internal regulations**
- **— external regulations**

— **In the field of administration and finance** the head of the school and his team ensure the daily running of the school with regard to administrative regulations (and/or regulations of other entities on which the school depends) and in accordance with the objectives and plans defined by the school council (and other collegiate bodies), within the range of their responsibilities.

The head of the school is the person principally responsible for carrying out the tasks required for management of school organisation (defining goals and objectives, planning, organising, controlling, decision making, staff leadership), although, depending on the management model and the type of leadership adopted, he may share this responsibility with other bodies.

In this field it is essentially his duty to carry out the management of human, material and financial resources: exercising hierarchical authority over all staff; authorising the spending planned in the budget; supervising the work of teachers and other staff; guaranteeing the correct running of services; observing the maintenance of installations; organising timetables and distributing teaching and non-teaching work; etc.

— **In the pedagogic and educational field**, the head of the school intervenes in the organisation and management of curriculum (according to the margin of autonomy which, in each state, the school has), guiding teaching-apprenticeship activities, in the processes of pupil evaluation, in implementing specific educational measures (overcoming school failure, pedagogic experiments, innovations and reform, etc.), maintaining discipline and pupil follow-up.

In carrying out these duties, he presides over most of the collegiate bodies (with the exceptions already mentioned regarding the school council — see table 4) which

deliberate or give advice in this field. It is also the head of the school who appoints teachers to the different tasks of intermediate management.

In Member States in which schools have greater room for manoeuvre in building the curriculum (DENMARK, IRELAND, ENGLAND and WALES) he submits proposals to the school council and, when they have been approved by this body, puts them into practice. In other states, he is responsible for the application of official programmes.

— **In the field of internal relations,** the duties of the head of the school are fundamentally to encourage work groups and teams, give institutional leadership, handle disputes, develop teaching and non-teaching staff, conduct meetings, distribute information and motivate professionals.

— **In the field of external relations,** the head of the school officially represents the school, guaranteeing relations with parents, administration, other schools, local authorities, other community services, companies and cultural associations.

This relative uniformity in the **field of action** and in the **duties** of the head of the school which, apart from some small differences, is clear in the description given. However, other types of differences between Member States should not be overlooked in the relationship of this body with school administration (some of which have already been mentioned).

The first difference lies in the degree of autonomy that the school has in relation to central or local administration. The less the autonomy the more the head of the school becomes the representative of the state (GREECE, for example), or local education authority (NETHERLANDS and ENGLANDS and WALES) or region (SCOTLAND), which strengthens his power and considerably reduces the action of other collegiate bodies.

A second difference lies in the power attributed to the school council and which at least formally, may reduce the responsibilities of the head of the school (with regard to these aspects see what was said in chapter 4). This is the case (from the legal point of view) in DENMARK, IRELAND, ENGLAND and WALES (particularly after the ERA of 1988).

A third difference lies in the actual structure of this body which, as we have seen, in SPAIN (steering team) and PORTUGAL (steering council — in legislation still in force), is of the collegiate type, which in principle reduces the personal power of the head of the school so binding in legislation in most of the other states.

A fourth difference is linked to the power of teachers' representative councils (see chapter 6). In SPAIN, ITALY, PORTUGAL, these are not restricted to advisory functions but in certain fields (principally, pedagogy and education, internal relations) the responsibilities of the head of the school are formally reduced.

In concluding the comparison on the responsibilities of the head of the school it should be emphasised that frequently, **the major differences lie more between school management in a state than between the legal framework of each state. And in the same way, these differences do not lie so much with legal and structural aspects but rather with management models and practices, on the style of leadership and the organisational environment.**

However, apart from this exception, within the framework of this comparative analysis, it is important to note to what extent the structural and legal aspects of school administration may constitute areas of difference (between states, or between schools).

In the analysis done on the functions and fields of intervention it is clear that the head of the school plays "conflicting" roles which may be affected by factors resulting from the structure of bodies.

These "conflicting" roles are [3] :

— administrator — professional leader;
— administration representative — school representative.

Although the importance attributed to each of these roles may depend on many factors of an individual nature (representation of the position, professional biography, motivation, etc.) and of an organisational nature (culture, environment, interaction with the environment, etc.), it must be recognised that the legal framework, and specifically, the expectations that administrative authorities have of action taken by the head of the school, may favour playing one of the roles more than the other.

The analysis done on the regulations governing the exercise of this position in the different member states is not conclusive with regard to this topic.

However, reforms that have been introduced recently in several states (and which have already been mentioned) seem to contradict the bureaucratic image of the head of the school which was based more on the roles of "administrator" [4] and "representative in the school of the state or the local education authority". Symptoms of this change are found in the increase in power of school councils and in the development of administrative, financial and pedagogic autonomy as well as the participation of pupils and teachers in taking decisions and in the daily management of the school.

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[3] Several studies and research (mainly by English speaking authors) have revealed these conflicting roles in the work of heads of schools. For example, the works of Hughes in England (between 1972 and 1977), which demonstrated that the head of the school is at the same time "the leading professional" and "the chief executive of his organization" (quoted by John Buckley, *The training of secondary school heads in Western Europe*. Windsor, NFER — NELSON, 1985, p. 12 and 13).

[4] Traditionally, and when schools were small academic communities, the role of the "professional leader" was fairly important. The head of the school was above all recognised for his qualities as a teacher. The importance of this qualification legitimated the use of criteria such as length of service and teaching experience in selecting teachers for this position. As education system increased in size from the fifties, and as administrative problems became increasingly complex, bureaucracy also increased in educational organisations. Heads of school began to spend more time on administrative tasks and less on pedagogic activities and teachers' work development.

In PORTUGAL when, immediately following the revolutionary movement of 1974, heads of schools were substituted, at the initiative of the teachers, by "management committees" which were elected, there was a clear change in the representation that teachers began to have in the different management functions of a school: the members of a "management committee" were seen fundamentally as "professional leaders" and "school representatives" next to administration. After 1976, during "the normalizing period", school administration was governed in such a way as to help establish a balance among these rules. Experience over the past 14 years with this system of administration (previously described) and what will shortly be changed, meant that in many schools the image of the head of the school ("president of the steering council") was built up, making him more "pedagogic" and "closely involved" with the school (sometimes more "corporative") than what is usually found in other states.

TRAINING:

Initial obligatory **training** of heads of schools is practically non-existent in member states. The only exception is FRANCE where all candidates for the position of head of school must attend training in order to take up these duties.

Since 1971 there has been initial training in FRANCE for staff managing secondary schools. Initially this lasted for 10 days but in 1984 it was increased to 12 weeks and in 1980 reduced to 11 weeks.

Currently in secondary, all candidates enrolled on the "aptitude list" (including those for the position of deputy head of school) must attend initial training which includes 2 stages. The first, theoretical and practical, prior to taking up duties; the second, induction training, during the first year of duties.

The first stage includes around 6 weeks of theoretical-practical training and 13 weeks of practical training in companies, regional administration bodies and in schools.

The second stage, is less standardised and aims to correspond to the needs of specific training for heads of schools (and deputies) who are already in office and different methods may be used.

In primary education, training is organised by supervision, for all candidates enrolled on the "aptitude list" and includes around 100 hours of theoretical-practical training and in house training lasting a minimum of 30 hours, in municipal departments and other bodies working close to the primary school.

The absence of obligatory initial training in other states (or of far less training, in FRANCE, up until recently), is based on the assumption which to a certain extent prevailed

until the end of the seventies that success in managing a school depended fundamentally on the personal qualities of the candidate and their teaching experience. As to the specific training required, the model used was an "of an empirical type", in the belief that only in gaining experience in the position could the work involved be understood.

This assumption led to most of the selection procedures described above, based on access examinations, length of teaching service, experience prior to the position and in the use of the post of "deputy" as a step on the way to the career of head of school, as well as in some cases one or two probational years.

With the start of the eighties **in-service training** increased significantly in most Member States.

In DENMARK, the association of heads of schools, in cooperation with the Centre for Education of Municipalities, promoted weekly courses for heads of schools recently taking up this position. These courses are not compulsory but most heads attend them.

In FRANCE each head of school is expected to attend at least one week of training a year.

In GREECE, beyond the training provided through the public Training Centres, the Pedagogical Institute and the Ministry itself, the head may receive scholarships for carrying on studies and participating in educational exchange programmes.

In ITALY, refresher courses are organised by the Ministry of Education, regional institutes for educational research and vocational training (IRRSEA), educational associations, unions and private organisations.

In the NETHERLANDS there are specialised institutions in continuous training concerning school organisation and management. The most important of these is "Interstudie 50".

In the ENGLAND and WALES since 1983 there has been a governmental programme for the in-service training of heads of schools and other teachers involved in school management ("senior staff"). This programme is financed by the government but is implemented either by local education authorities (LEA), by the secondary school or by a national development centre (NDC) for school administration training. There are courses for at least 20 days for those who are taking up their duties or who have less experience; and long term courses, of around 160 days for those with more experience.

In SCOTLAND continuous training is "formally" provided in the particular case of management techniques although it is not mandatory. However, promotion to headteacher is unlikely for candidates who have not attended these training courses.

Table 6 : Appointment of Head of School

B	Teacher appointed by the Ministry through promotion or selection, after successfully completing examinations. Should have a minimum of 10 years' teaching, 6 of which at the level of teaching for which he is a candidate. In subsidised teaching the municipal or provincial council appoints the head of the school.
DK	Teacher appointed within a candidate list, by the municipal council on the recommendation of the school council.
E	Teacher elected by the school council from among the teachers in this school. Candidates should have a minimum of three years' teaching and have spent one year at the school.
F	In secondary education, the teacher (or school guidance councillor or inspector) appointed by the Ministry either through selection, promotion or position (in the case of inspectors). In primary, the teacher is appointed by the school supervisor.
D	Teacher appointed by the Ministry of Education of each Land. The process of selection takes place at the lower or intermediate level or in the Ministry itself. In some Länder the local responsible for the school financing (Schulträger) is envolved in the selection. In other Länder, the "teachers' council" or the school council is heard or sends its representatives to a selection panel.
GR	Teacher appointed by the Ministry through a selection procedure. The selection is based on a "promotion list" which is formed in accordance with nationwide criteria. The tenure lasts for four years.
IRL	Teacher appointed by the entity on which the school depends (the "patron").
I	Teacher appointed by the Ministry through selection based on a list drawn up in order of qualifications, according to the results obtained in an examination (oral and written), and on an assessment of the candidate' s experience and qualifications. Candidates should be teaching at the level for which they are applying and have at least 5 years' service. Appointment is only final after a probationary year.
L	In secondary education the teacher is appointed by the Grand Duke on a proposal by the Ministry of Education. In primary teaching, there is no head of the school. These duties are carried out in an itinerant manner by 15 inspectors.
NL	The school head is appointed by the relevant authority (bevoegd gezag) the school depends on: — Ministry of Education and Science for state schools; — municipal executive for municipal schools, unless the municipal council has ordained otherwise. — "school council" representing the competent authority for private schools.
P	In secondary education the duties of the head of the school are carried out by the "steering council" (an elected collegiate body, made up of a majority of teachers, non-teaching staff and pupils in upper secondary), and in particular, by the president elected from and among the teaching members of the council. In primary, the teacher is elected by the school council made up only of teachers. Shortly, within the framework of reforms to school administration legislation the head of the school (primary and secondary) will be a teacher with five years' experience and specialised training, selected by the school council through application.
UK	In ENGLAND and WALES, the teacher is appointed by the local education authority (LEA) based on a recommendation made by a selection committee composed, in primary education, by 3 members indicated by LEA, and 3 members of the school council, and in secondary education, by 4 members of each entity. In SCOTLAND the teacher is appointed by the regional education authority (Regional Council and Islands Council) upon recommendation of a selecting committee composed in equal parts by representatives of the educational authority and of the school council. This committee is chaired by a representative of the education authority.

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CHAPTER 6: COUNCILS FOR EDUCATIONAL AND PEDAGOGIC COORDINATION AND GUIDANCE

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The participation of teachers in school administration takes place at two levels: **institutional** (in the definition of school policy, including educational and pedagogic aspects) and **functional** (in the specific area of teaching work teaching content and methods, organisation of pupils work, school assessment, etc.). This participation is based on the existence of the following guidance councils and educational and pedagogic coordination council:

Teachers' council

Institutional participation takes place either with representatives on the school council or in professional bodies (TEACHERS' COUNCIL) through which teachers to a greater or lesser extent ensure the control of pedagogic and didactic guidance and school organisation.

These bodies (which normally include all the teachers in a school) exist in several states (see table 3), although a clear distinction can be established in their functions, according to two major groups of countries:

In the **first group** the "teachers' council" has purely advisory functions and works as a support body to the head of the school and sometimes to the school council. Besides this it is a forum for discussing pedagogic matters. The influence it exerts on school policy is the result both of its technical qualification and how receptive the head of the school is to its proposals and opinions. This is the situation in BELGIUM, DENMARK, FRANCE (in primary education), GERMANY and LUXEMBOURG.

From this set of countries, GERMANY (although bearing in mind the diversity of the existing situations among the several Länder, that has often been mentioned) is the one where there seems to be greater intervening power from the teacher council. In this Member State the council decides on the following areas:

— defining principles for schedules and teaching tasks allocation;

— teacher' replacement for short absences;

— teachers' in-service training;

— pupils' disciplinary matters;

— in broader terms, every thing related to teachers work at school.

In some Länder the "teachers' council" is consulted or sends representatives to the head selection panel.

In all Member States the council is presided over by the head of the school with the exception of DENMARK where it can be a member elected by the actual council.

In the **second group** — GREECE, ITALY, PORTUGAL and SPAIN — these councils formally have deliberative functions and have the legal capacity to influence pedagogic guidance of the school. In this area they are responsible for some of the attributions which are given in other states to the school council or to the head of the school (see chapters 4 and 5).

In GREECE, the teachers' council ("Syllogos Didaskonton"), includes all teaching staff (permanent and non-permanent), the school head and his deputy. In secondary schools, pupils' councils representatives may participate on the council as "ad hoc" members. It is presided by the school head and meetings are held at least 5 times per year.
It is up to this council to decide planning, implementation, control and evaluation of school activities, in particular:
— promoting cooperation between school and community;
— determining internal regulation of the school;
— evaluating pupils' behaviour and deciding on serious disciplinary cases;
— promoting the accomplishement of the educational policy and school running;
— allocating classes, administrative and pedagogical duties.

In ITALY, the head of the school also presides over the teachers' council ("collegio del docenti") which includes all the teachers working in the school. It has a considerable influence on the objectives, planning and control of teaching activit es as can be seen by the principal attributions:
— electing: teachers' representatives on the different councils;
— deciding on: didactic and disciplinary guidance of the school; use of subsidies; choice of school manuals and other teaching materials; adjustments to programmes required for interdisciplinary coordination; criteria for setting up classes, timetables and curricular organisation;
— carrying out: education programmes adapted to the environmental and social demands surrounding the pupil.
submitting: proposals on: integration activities and remedial work for of pupils; initiatives of innovation or methods and didactic experimentation; teacher training; acquisition of teaching material.
— assessing: on a regular basis didactic action and observing its efficiency with regard to guidance and objectives, proposing the necessary adjustments for improvement.

In PORTUGAL in secondary schools, the head of the school presides over this council ("conselho pedagógico") which is composed of the teachers guiding the teaching of the different disciplines (delegates elected by the respective teachers), the coordinator of class managers (also elected), a pupil representative, for each year, a representative of the

parents' association, when this exists; and a representative of the advisory council. As there is no equivalent body to the "school council" in PORTUGAL, this council is also responsible for some of the duties usually found in the education and pedagogic field, as can be seen by its principal attributions:

— deciding on: criteria to be used in organising educational activities, in the management of school time and space, class organisation, drawing up timetables, etc.; the actual system for running the school and internal organisation; approval of the training plan for teachers presented by the respective training section.

— drawing up, approving and distributing the internal regulations and the school activities plan.

— taking the necessary action to: unify the criteria for pupil assessment and coordinating its application; building an "educational project" for the school; stimulating coordination between the different disciplines; supporting the integration of pupils in the school community, collaborating with other school bodies and with parents' and pupils' associations; encoura-ging the interaction between the school and the environment; supporting pupils' initiatives with regard to formative and cultural activities.

— submitting proposals for the acquisition of equipment and didactic materials.

The law that will reform school administration retains this council but with reduced powers due to the existence of a school council.

In SPAIN, the teachers council ("claustro") includes all teaching staff and the head of the school presides over it. Its principal attributions are:

— electing its representatives to the school council.

— deciding on: the programme for teaching activities (includes teaching activities and methods); evaluation criteria and pupil recovery; initiatives in the field of experimentation and pedagogic research.

— carrying out: coordination of pupil guidance and tutorship; planning extra-curricular activities following the directives defined by the school council.

— presenting proposals to the management team for: drawing up the general school programme; developing complementary activities.

Councils of disciplines or specialities

These are councils in which there is functional participation for teachers, i.e., that arising from their technical competence, in a specific field — in this case, in teaching a specific discipline.

In these councils teachers within the scope of their didactic autonomy, coordinate the teaching of a particular discipline (programming, methods, teaching materials, pupil assessment, etc).

In FRANCE the head of the school or one of his representatives. presides over this council ("équipe pédagogique par discipline ou specialité").

In GERMANY, in primary, this council (Fachkonferenz) also has representatives from the pupils and parents councils and has advisory functions. A member elected by the council, by the head of the school or by an appointed teacher presides over this council.

In PORTUGAL, the "conselho de grupo (ou disciplina)", in secondary education , is coordinated by a member elected for the purpose, who is the representative of this group of teachers on the "pedagogic council" (teachers council).

Class councils

These councils are the basic structure for the participation of teachers (also from the functional point of view) in school administration. It is here that the teaching of different disciplines is coordinated, each pupil is observed and school results are assessed. The class council thus completes the action of the "class manager" (see chapter 4).

In some states this council, despite being made up of teachers, may be extended to include parents' representatives and, less frequently, pupil representatives.

In FRANCE, in secondary, there is a council parallel to the teachers council for the class ("équipe pédagogique des enseignants de la classe") which also includes the participation of two delegates for parents, two delegates for pupils, besides other education specialists and possibly, health specialists and social workers. It is this enlarged council which is called the class council ("conseil de classe").

In GERMANY the president of the parents council for the class participates without the right to vote.

In ITALY, in lower secondary, the council is made up of class teachers and 4 representatives elected by the parents of pupils in the class. In upper secondary, two of the parents' representatives are substituted by pupil representatives. When the council meets to decide on pupil evaluation it is made up only of teachers.

CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS - PART II

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS — PART II

The description carried out in the former chapters about the diverse bodies assuring primary and secondary school administration enables us to outline the main similarities and differences, in this sphere, between the Member States of the European Community.

Similarities concern, above all, the more formal aspects, such as organisation type and function, while differences concern, chiefly, bodies composition, attributions and competences.

In chapter 3 we had the opportunity of describing in general terms school administration structures common to the twelve member states. In the chapters below we compared available data about the several bodies and identified, for each of them, the main convergences and deviations, clarifying, as far as possible, the more specific aspects of the several states legislation.

Now, it is important to go beyond the sectorial extent of the accomplished view and to enquire about the outcomes obtained through the comparative analysis, depending upon the great questions common to the several member states, in the area of school administration.

These questions are grounded on the questions presented in **INTRODUCTION** and may be studied through three principal themes:

— administrative decentralization and school autonomy;
— participation of the various educational community members in school administration;
— school management effectiveness.

Those are the subjects we are going to consider together in these **conclusions**, examining the main problems in several states and their developing trends.

1. Administrative decentralization and school autonomy

The education system administration procedures in the various member states of the European Community have seen significant changes.

In states traditionally centralized (like FRANCE, PORTUGAL and SPAIN) one may observe a trend for rendering to local and regional powers a set of attributions and competences that were, till now, exclusive to central power (specially when relating to

school administration). In FRANCE, for instance, secondary schools ("collèges" and "lycées", considered as "national public schools of an administrative nature" are now refered to as "local public schools", depending both upon the Government and local authorities.

In traditionally decentralized states a number of legal steps are starting to be developed for returning to central power a more actual control over the national education system, as for instance in ENGLAND and WALES, or the: "opting out" (system allowing local authorities - LEA - maintained schools to choose to be a central state maintained school).

Nevertheless, in both cases, in this power transfer, there seems to be a desire to safeguard a large degree of pedagogic, administrative and financial autonomy towards the school.

In the states with decentralization underway, acknowledgement of school autonomy is in line with the goal of avoiding the replacement of the central power "centralism" by a local power "centralism".

As Luc Soubré asserts in his report to the French Minister of Education, concerning school decentralization and democratization: "For the decentralization to suit democracy in the school, the general transfer of state responsibilities to the municipalities, departments or regions must go along with the setting up of strong and specific institutional structures in the schools. They have to assure the educational community the respect towards their specific needs, therefore outlining the due margins of administrative, financial and mainly pedagogic autonomy. It is necessary to enlarge the space for freedom in these activity sectors left to the decision making of the elected members of "collèges" and "lycées" (secondary schools). One could summarize it in a simple statement: ***for strong local powers, strong school."*** *(Underlined by the author)*[1].

As regards decentralized states, the above "re-centralizing" trends go along with "re-decentralization" measures, expressed in a power transfer from local educational authorities to the school council itself.

So, this "re-decentralization" changes the "centre-periphery" type relations that were often observed between local authorities and each school under their rule.

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[1] Luc Soubré, Rapport à Monsieur le Ministre de l'Education Nationale - Décentralisation et démocratisation des institutions scolaires, Paris, Ministère de l'Education, 1982, p.14.

These steps most relevant example may be found in recent legislation issued in ENGLAND and WALES, following the Educational Reform Act (ERA) on 1988, we have some times referred to. According to this law, Local Education Authorities (LEA), in every primary and secondary school with 200 pupils or more, should delegate the managing responsibility of its allotted budget. This delegation comprises more particularly the expenses concerning staff, handbooks, didactic materials and regular maintainance of equipment. The school council is then responsible for the running of the school, having power to share available resources, on its own priority basis. By way of example, the council is free to determine the number of the teaching and non-teaching staff, recommending LEA (that still is the employer) their appointment or discharge.
In the case of schools having chosen the "grant-maintained school" position, property owned or held by LEA for the purposes of the schools is transferred to the school council (governig bodies). This council also becomes in charge of teachers allocation and allowance application [2].

In SCOTLAND, the "school council" may also initiate negotiations for a school to leave the local authority control ("opt-out"), but so far such a process has not been carried out.

Nowadays, and in the sphere of education system administration, we can observe a sort of redefinition of the roles allocated to the various decision-making levels. There seems to be a trend for finding a balance between centralization and decentralization, for the purpose of guaranteeing a suitable share of reponsibilities, central power and the other.

As is stated in the discussion proposal about education reform, prepared by the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science: "Central powers settle the overall framework of the education system as well as the guidelines for educational policy and planning; regional and local power put them into practice and enlarge upon them, while school and pedagogic committees draw up and execute their programme within a remarkable autonomy margin" [3].

In this process, the reinforcement of the autonomy margin of schools belonging to the state ou local authority section plays a basic role.

It is today a general principle in the educational policy of many Member States that school government bodies should dispose of the power and the necessary means to take

[2] A synthesis of this legislation can be found in the document prepared by EURYDICE European Unit: "Education Reform, United Kingdom, 1989, Education today, EURYDICE, Unité Européenne, 1990.

[3] Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, Proyeto para la reforma de la enseñanza, Educacón infantil, primaria, secundaria y professional. Propuesta para debate, Madrid, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, 1987, p.12.

important decisions, not only at the level of teaching methods and didactic materials selection, but also in curricular organization, pedagogic guidance and resource management[4].

GERMANY is still one of the EC countries where school autonomy is, from a legal point of view, more reduced. Nevertheless, the situation varies from one Land to the other. In some of them, teachers' and parents' power of decision-making has been increasing in terms of drawing up the education policy of the school itself. But, generally, the head's scope for action is sometimes very restricted. (This is even truer for the remaining school managing bodies). In the pedagogic and didactic areas there is quite a confined regulation from each Land Ministry of Education (for instance, the school can only choose handbooks upon a list previously ratified by the Minister). In the financial and administration area, school management rather depends on local authorities, especially on the "Schulträger".

In the countries where school autonomy is being developed the aim is to adjust school to the pupils and their familiar and social surroundings. This fact shows the importance ascribed to school organization in the achievement of educational objectives.

In DENMARK, the law of the 1st of January 1990, ruling the state and local authority maintained schools administration (which strenghtened the school council and the parents powers) is known as the "law of possibilities". The purpose is to underline the fact that the regulations are not very specific and give an opportunity to parents, pupils, teachers and school heads to establish a particular "profile" for their school.

In PORTUGAL, specific legislation ruling school autonomy in the 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic and secondary education (post-primary schools) was enacted the 3rd of February 1989. According to this decree-law: "School autonomy is exercised through particular competences in several management domains: curricula, complementary programmes and activities, pupils' guidance and following up, time and space for educational activities, teaching and non-teaching staff training, educational support schemes, buildings and equipment as well as administrative and financial aspects." This idea of autonomy, as an available space for intervention, is associated with the concept of "project" and "participation". As it is asserted in the same law: "School autonomy becomes effective with the building up of an education project, designed and implemented on a participated basis, demanding the responsible intervention of the several school members, considering the school characteristics and resources and taking into account the requests and support of the community concerned".

[4] See on the subject interesting report about organizational, financial and didactic autonomy in the European Community States, produced by the EURYDICE Italian Unit: Unità Italiana da EURYDICE, Il Governo, della scuola nei paesi della Comunità Europea, Quaderni di EURYDICE nº 3, 1990.

The school's capacity for designing and implementing an **educational project** constitutes, in countries like FRANCE, NETHERLANDS, PORTUGAL and SPAIN, the most obvious expression of its autonomy. It is through the "project" that the school community will make its choices in the area of educational policy, pedagogic guidance and resources management.

It should be stressed that even in countries where school autonomy is reduced, as in LUXEMBOURG, there is a trend towards recognising schools' responsibility to develop their own project. This happens in this state where, after the law from the 4th of Setember 1990, the technical secondary schools may now design a "school project" and establish contracts with private enterprises and institutions to carry it out.

It should be emphasised that, although from a legal point of view the working out of a school project contributes to determine the degree of school autonomy when carrying out national aims and curriculum, it may have further consequences.

As a matter of a fact, the attachment of school autonomy to the definition of a particular educational project goes beyond a static view of power division between the school and the different administration levels (which is present in every autonomy process).

The project concept is brought out (in the countries which have introduced it in their legislation) as a driving element of innovation and change and is usually connected with the need to improve school efficiency, through the mobilization of the whole school community.

In FRANCE, the "school projects" have been linked, since 1982, to the renovation process of the "collèges" (lower secondary education), with the purpose of promoting agreement on the definition of common aims for the school. In a certain way, the increment of "school projects" preceded the decentralizing measures dating from 1985 and 1986. The education guidance law of the 10th July 1989, definitively establishes the "school project", making it compulsory for every school.

In the NETHERLANDS it was ruled, in 1981, that all state and local authority maintained schools should develop a "school project". This project was intended to draw the guidelines the school should follow in order to achieve the educational aims established on general law for secondary education. With the primary education reform from the 1st of August 1985, the "school project" became an important tool in the renewal of the schools concerned. It was conceived for a two year period and comprised annual activity plans.

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2. Participation of the different educational community members in school administration

PARENTS AND OTHER REPRESENTATIVES OF LOCAL COMMUNITY:

The collected data on administration structures in primary and secondary schools reveal a clear trend towards the strengthening of parents' and other community members' participation in school council composition (see chapter 4).

These members' participation in school government is usually viewed as a counterpart to the larger autonomy conferred on schools. The enlargement of the responsibilities of the school government bodies, (determined by administrative decentralization and school higher degree of autonomy) has required greater responsibility from local community, either on the definition of school policy major guidelines or in the control and evaluation of its performance.

However, in spite of the obvious concern, in most Member States, to reinforce local community intervention and control over the school, a great variety of situations occurred, making this question one of the most controversial in the school administration.

In states where the administration of education is more decentralised, there is a clear prevalence of community representatives over school administration. In DENMARK, parents have a very strong representation; in SCOTLAND parents have the majority; in IRELAND and in ENGLAND and WALES, the presence of other local community representatives is also significant. The NETHERLANDS represent a particular case that should be stated:

In the NETHERLANDS, community and parental participation in school administration is exerted through the relevant authorities (municipal, religious or private secular) that monitor almost all schools (see chapter 2).
However, as regards the daily running of the school, parents' participation is only exerted on a advisory basis, together with pupil and teacher representatives, in a "participation council" (medezeggenschapsraad).
This council can have from 6 to 18 members, depending upon school size; and the ratio of teachers to parents/pupils, must be the same.
On some matters, the "participation council" must be heard, meeting in its whole or separately with the representatives of the teachers and the representatives of parents and pupils.

In states where decentralization is underway (like FRANCE, ITALY, NETHERLANDS, PORTUGAL and SPAIN — according to recent legislation) parents' and other representatives' influence has increased but is far from prevalent.

In the other Member States, the presence of the central administration, in the person of the school head, remains very strong, while parents and other community members still play an almost exclusively consultative role.

The case of GERMANY has, however, certain peculiarities. German legislation makes a distinction between "Schulverwaltung" (including school monitoring, administration and management) and "Schulmitwirkung" (meaning participation on school administration and management). Many Länder have legislation of their own for these two aspects of the education system.

This division of concepts entails that, in this Member State, a distinction is made between: school administration, which is within the scope of the head accountability and, at a lower level, of the teachers' council (as performers of norms and regulations issued by the Ministry of Education of the Land or by the educational local authorities); and the participation right from parents and pupils for defending their interests and points of view. This explains the existence of separated structures (of a corporative type) for each group of members of the education community, at all levels, from the class to the school as a whole, and also at different levels of the external administration (both local and Land). As regards parents, they elect a "class parents council" that then elects the "school parents council". The latter appoints deputies to the school council or, at the Länder where such a body does not exist, deputies to the teachers' council.

Legal measures which have been taken to strenghten parents' participation in school government can assume several forms:

— an increase in the number of the representatives (as it happened recently in DENMARK and in the ENGLAND and WALES);

— a reinforcement of the powers of the council in which they are represented; (or, as in PORTUGAL where new legislation includes, for the first time, parents' participation in the school council);

— awarding of subsidies to parents' representatives for their presence in meetings or allowances to support travel expenses. This was considered in recent legislation in DENMARK, and FRANCE.

As regards parents' participation it is still necessary to distinguish between two levels:

— an institutional level, where they intervene as privileged users of a public service (replacing or sharing with their children — according to schooling levels). As users they exercise the democratic right to influence school policy and to control services quality. It is, therefore, a "civic intervention" in the management of public affairs essentially exercised at the "school council" level, together with other social partners, with direct interests in school organization. The higher or lower weight of their representation and the capacity of intervention which is assigned to the council itself rely, as was mentioned before, on the degree to which the school is decentralized and its autonomy.

GREECE and PORTUGAL (according to new legislation) are the only Member States where parents' participation at this institutional level is carried out through the "Parents' Association".

In other states parents' representatives are directly elected by all school parents. This is the case in PORTUGAL, whenever there is no legally established parents' association in the school.

— an educational level, where parents' intervention has to do with the complementarity of family and school education. This type of intervention is focused on educational practice and develops in accordance with cooperation between school and family, which has always been present (at least from a formal point of view) in the organization of the education systems in the different Member States.

At this level, parents' participation usually assumes a direct and often spontaneous form, but it is frequently reinforced (or opposed) by the attitude assumed by the teachers and the school directorate. Furthermore, there are structures in many countries wich aim at developing this kind of participation and which end up getting involved with the school administration: this is the case with parents' representatives participation in class councils (DENMARK, FRANCE, GERMANY and ITALY).

TEACHERS

From a structural point of view (which is the framework for this comparative analysis), teachers' participation in school administration is also developed at two levels (see chapters 4 and 6):

— at an institutional level, as members of the school organization (in the school council and teachers' council);

— at a functional level as experts (in the fulfilment of intermediate management positions and in councils for educational, pedagogic guidance and coordination).

In this area the major differences are concerned with the role ascribed to teachers on the outlining of "school policy" and on the use of its margins of autonomy— institutional level.

From a legal point of view two extreme situations can be identified: DENMARK, IRELAND and UNITED KINGDOM, where teachers' participation, at this level, is rather reduced; SPAIN and PORTUGAL (mainly in the legislation still in force), where teachers have an important participation, either in terms of their representation weight in the school council and of their influence on the choice of the head, or in terms of the attributions and

competences of teachers' councils ("claustro" and "conselho pedagógico").

However, it must be taken into account that these differences are sometimes rather apparent, since the centralised character of the administration in both Iberian countries reduces the scope of their legally established influence.

The description of teachers' participation in school administration cannot, however, be confined to its structural features. Although the natural limits of this comparative analysis do not allow us to go further, it is important to point out three facts deeply affecting this area of school administration in every Member State:

— teachers, as professionals, tend to keep for themselves the control over an important number of decisions which directly affect teaching activity (mainly over teacher-pupil relations in the classroom and the adoption of different teaching methods).

— the evolution of organization methods (namely the withdrawal of the bureaucratic model) requires that teachers should intervene more actively in school management, either as a result of internal "decentralization" or to develop cooperative structures.

— the recognition of the importance of school organization in the fulfilment of educational and pedagogic objectives pushes the professional teacher beyond the traditional limits of the classroom. Today the teacher assumes more and more the role of a "training manager": he has to plan different activities (no more exclusively pedagogic), to manage resources, to coordinate teams, to chair meetings, to exercise leadership, to animate groups and work teams, to assess projects, etc.

These professional characteristics condition his participation process in school administration and the future evolution in the different Member States. Furthermore they represent an important element to be accounted for in the analysis of school power relations (namely as a school head) and in the role played by the other members of educational community.

PUPILS

In broad terms, pupils participation on school administration (upper secondary level) is assured by its members' participation in the school council, except in IRELAND, in ENGLAND and WALES and in SCOTLAND (although in the latter they can occasionally participate).

Besides this institutional participation there is in some of the countries a body meant to represent pupils interests and to foster their cooperation in social and educational activities. This body, commonly named **pupils' council**, is provided for in DANISH, FRENCH, GERMAN and GREEK legislation.

In PORTUGAL, this council does not exist, though "students' associations" discharge some of its functions.

In GERMANY, from the 5th year of schooling on, pupils elect a delegate at each class. The set of delegates composes the pupils council ("Schulvertretung") and elects the president from among its members, who will fulfil the task of pupils spokesman within the school. In other Länder the pupils' spokesman is elected directly by the pupils. The council intervenes on selecting teaching themes and activities and also express pupils' point of view when that body include a pupils' representative (school council and class council). In some Länder (where the school council does not exist) the pupils' council send delegates to the teachers' plenary council.
In DENMARK, in schools running more than 4th schooling year the formation of a school council has been compulsory (since 1986) every time pupils so wish. The main purpose of this council is to defend their interests either by school governing bodies or by local education authorities. It should be asked for advice regarding pedagogic organization of the teaching establishment.

In FRANCE, in upper secondary schools ("lycées") there is a council set up by pupil delegates, presided by the head of the school and composed by an each class delegate. In accordance with the Guidance Law of 10th July 1989, this council "is asked for advice on school life problems (internal regulation, school project, social and educational activities) and also on school work (time management, remediation activities, school guidance"). This council meets normally once every three months and is connected with the management of social and educational activities.
In recent legislation (decree-law from 2nd November 1990) particular mention was given to training of the pupils' delegates. That training is defined by the "delegates' council" itself, in collaboration with the "educational advisor" and may be integrated in the "school project". The training of the pupils' delegates shall comprise the following main goals: civic apprenticeship (mandates, representation, etc.); expression and accountability rights; school and educational community knowledge; organised running of school.

In GREECE, pupils' participation in schools is strongly structured into "pupils' communities" ("Mathitikes Kinotites"), both at the level of each class and the whole school.
Thus, in secondary education, pupils participate in the following bodies:
— Class general assembly which holds ordinary meetings once a month during one teaching hour with all pupils' participation. It is presided over by the head of the "class pupils' council" (see forward) and, in lower secondary education, is supported by a class teacher designed for that purpose. The assembly deliberates over cultural activities, school running, internal regulations and pupils' behaviour.
— Class pupils' council, composed of five elements elected by the General Assembly (president, treasurer, secretary and two members). The council holds regular meetings once a week with the main tasks of: supervising the carrying out of the tasks assigned to the General Assembly; submitting proposals to the "school pupils' council" (see forward); managing the General Assembly funds proceeding from cultural activities undertaken by the class. These council members may participate as "ad hoc" elements in the teachers' council for disciplinary problems and extra-curricular activities.
— School General Assembly, includes all the pupils and is presided over by the chairman of the "school pupils council" (see forward). Meetings are held three times a year (3 teaching

hours). In lower secondary education the Assembly is supported by class teachers. Its attributions are related to extra-curricular activities achievement, pupils' behaviour, school running and regulations.
— School pupils' council, composed of fifteen pupils elected by the General Assembly: one president, one deputy president, one secretary and twelve members. Meetings are held once a week (beyond the teaching hours) and its main attributions cover: the supervising of tasks ascribed to the Assembly; the co-ordination of the several "class pupils' councils"; school funds management. Its elements still participate as "ad-hoc" members in the teachers' council when it has to decide on school activities organization and disciplinary problems.
In primary education only the first bodies (at class level) exist which are presided over by a teacher. Their attributions are similar to those in secondary schools, but they do not hold regular meetings.

In PORTUGAL, representing pupils' interests is an assigned task of "students' associations" attested by the Ministry of Education. They are freely composed by pupils in agreement with the general rules due to the law setting up its formation and way of functionning. These same "associations" cannot be envisaged as school administration bodies although the new management legislation establishes that pupils associations should appoint pupils' representatives on the school council. Their substantial role is social-educational animation and the defence of pupils' interests.

As regards pupil participation on school administration it must be stressed that it is commonly viewed either as a need to ensure a participating management of school organization (similarly to what happens with the remaining members) or as a means to achieve pedagogic and educational aims.

In terms of the first aspect, pupil participation in school life organization enables a pedagogy to be developed centering on pupils' interests, joining them to the objectives definition, to the learning organization and to their evaluation. It is precisely for this purpose that, in many countries, pupil representative participation is provided for in **class councils** or, as in DENMARK, it takes place weekly a "free discussion class" ("class teacher").

In terms of the second aspect, pupil participation in school administration aims at developing the respect towards the values of democracy, association, autonomy, pluralism as well as preparing them to practise responsible citizenship.

As a conclusion, in this same sphere, it is important to note that, although the comparative analysis reveals that most Member States observe, and in the legislation ruling school administration, pupils' roles and their representative structures, this fact is insufficient to evaluate to what extent that same participation exists or is efficient.

On one side, most pupil participation takes place in an informal way and depends upon the school pedagogic project itself, as well as upon the type of relationship teachers and other members of education community settle with them.

On the other hand youngsters' and teenagers' participation in school administration is determined by pupil condition and his subjection to adult power (teachers, parents,

community representatives, etc.). This fact often causes pupil indifference in taking advantage of participation opportunities legally established, as they are reduced to formal aspects, having no influence on decision-making.

3. The effectiveness of school management

Most of the legal changes in school administration referred to in this comparative analysis, can be framed in two large movements which have guided reflection about school and its management since the middle seventies:

— the study and research about the influence of school characteristics on pupils' school outcomes and, in a wider sense, the identification of the factors that determine school effectiveness;

— the evolution of organization theories and management science and their application for school organizations, in particular the connection between management and "excellent schools".

Among the diversity of the identified effectiveness factors it is worth noting the relative consensus on the importance of organizational factors, such as "school climate and culture", "school leadership", "how objectives are defined", "parents' participation", etc.

With regard to the evolution of management theories and practices, they move towards the questioning of the school bureaucratic conception, sustaining the existence of structures which promote autonomy and participation, operating as instances of differentiation and adapting to the educational organizations characteristics (the "loosely coupled systems")[5].

One of the sides that more clearly reveal this new way of facing school and its management (in this comparative analysis context) is connected with the performance of the school head post and with his training (see chapter 5).

— the reinforcement of school autonomy (which is verified in many states) contributes to weakening the school head's image as a representative of the administration (central or local) by teachers and pupils, allowing him to appear instead as a professional and a pedagogic leader.

— widening the responsibilities of collective bodies, particularly in the school council, reduces the concentration of power that traditionally lay with the school head. He tends to become the referee of the sometimes conflicting interests of teachers, parents or other community representatives, the executor of the policies defined by the school government bodies, the leader of internal relations and an agent of school organization development.

— In some countries (PORTUGAL, SPAIN and to a certain extent ITALY) the school

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[5] To use a concept introduced by Karl Weich in his article "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems". *Administrative Science Quaterly*. Vol. 21. Março 1976.

head shares his responsibilities with other teachers who constitute a sort of directive committee.

— The complexity of school head functions and the recognition of his importance to school development are leading many states to pay particular attention to his initial and continuous training.

— The changes in many states' legislation point towards a redefinition of the school head's role and contribute to turning him into an influential element in the definition and execution of policies aiming to improve school quality, the development of its efficacy and the excellence of its results[6].

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[6] See on this subject the conclusions of the case studies developed in the context of the ISIP (Internacional School Improvement Project) from OECD: Hopes, Clive (ed.), The school leader and school improvement, case studies from ten OECD countries, Leuven, ACCO, 1986.

PART III

EVALUATION OF SCHOOLS

In recent years the question of evaluation of schools has come increasingly to the fore of the debate about quality of schooling. The decentralising of the administration of schools which is a strong common trend in most EC countries has made this question a top item on national agendas.

Accountability has become a key-word in this context and the relation between the two aspects of evaluation: control and development has been gradually changed. An issue which will be further detailed when describing the individual countries and their systems of evaluation.

The concept of **quality of schooling** inevitably becomes the point of most concern and disagreement. In principle two fundamentally different approaches to the delimitation and definition of this concept can be traced in literature on this topic.

The first one represents the opinion that quality of schooling may be described as the degree to which the school succeeds in accomplishing the goals set up for that particular part of the education. According to this point of view it is possible to determine the relative level of quality of the individual school by comparing a number of pre-selected input and output factors.

The second approach to the definition of what quality means in an educational context stresses that the quality of education depends on the selection of relevant elements, the assessment of the character of these elements and the weighting given to their relative importance. The concept of quality and the assessment of quality in education is thus complex and value laden.

The input-output approach has of course been criticized for being too simplified as there are important parts of the aims and goals of an educational system which are not easily measurable. The result being a too narrow and perhaps unproductive evaluation of the schools in question. Another argument against this kind of approach could be labelled the quantitative-qualitative argument.

If for instance the pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) is treated as an input factor all schools with a higher PTR would, other things being equal, reach a higher output score than the schools with a lower PTR. Considerable increases in the number of pupils per teacher might, however, threaten to reduce the level of quality. So there seems to be a number of limitations to the validity of evaluations carried out according to principles and methods that are entirely or mostly based on easily measurable factors.

Using the terminology of management theory this approach could be characterized as a way of measuring the **effectiveness** and the **efficiency** of an institution. The terms effectiveness and efficiency meaning the degree of success with which targets are met and the degree of success with which targets are met in relation to the resources used repectively. In this sense an effective school may be inefficient and vice versa. And it can still be questioned whether effectiveness and efficiency equal quality of schooling.

The opponents of this kind of evaluation in many cases advocate types of evaluation which involves those who are evaluated. This of course can be done to different degrees and more or less systematically.

Internal evaluation carried out solely by those employed at the institutions represents a radical approach to this kind of evaluation. There are, however, ways and methods of combining the involvement of teachers and headteachers with experts (inspectors,advisers) from outside the institutions when carrying out this type of evaluation. The question of internal evaluation will be discussed at more length in chapter 9. The criticism raised against this type of evaluation shall, however, be shortly reviewed.

The major objection to internal evaluation as a method involving only those whose performance are evaluated concerns both the **validity and the reliability of the methods used**. The question is: Is it possible to create instruments for self-evaluation which in the hands of the evaluators represent a sufficent degree of objectivity? And is it possible to develop the necessary skills to manage these instruments of evaluation so that a satisfactory level of reliability can be achieved?

Another objection against the use of internal self-evaluation is that it will only be possible to a very limited extent to make comparisons between individual schools in order to determine the relative quality of schooling. This argument is only valid of course if one of the purposes of evaluating is to make comparisons between schools. And this again raises the decisive question about the purpose(s) of evaluation. A question which at least partly may be answered by analysing how and by whom the results of evaluation are used.

CHAPTER 8: EXTERNAL EVALUATION

CHAPTER 8: EXTERNAL EVALUATION

We shall now return to external evaluation as it is conceived and practised in the EC countries. In the following external evaluation is taken to mean evaluation formally and systematically of the content and practice of teaching, the pupils and the teachers, and the organisation and management of the school as an institution. The evaluation is carried out on the initiative and under the responsibility of a service, organisation or institution, normally a public responsibility at central, regional or local level of administration and external to the school itself. The institutions carrying out the evaluation may be an integrated part of the educational authority or they may be independent organisations.

There are of course different ways of practising external evaluation in the EC countries due to differences in tradition and values underlying the national educational systems. So the term external evaluation of schools covers important differences in the organisation and practice of this kind of evaluation.

In most countries, however, external evaluation means inspection of some of the activities of the schools by central, regional and/or local inspectors. Normally these inspectors are trained as teachers. In some cases they possess specific financial or managerial skills which enable them to inspect and/or advise the schools on matters concerning the financial or organisational managing of the school.

In FRANCE there are four types of inspectors:

National level	1. comprehensive
Regional level	2. regional secondary education 3. technical education
Local level	4. primary and pre-primary education

The "comprehensive" inspectors (inspecteurs généraux de l'Administration) evaluate administrative, financial, accounting and economic functions of the schools. At the end of each year the inspectors at national level submit a report to the minister on investigations and analyses carried out.

In the future the overall evaluation of the school as an institution will be the main concern of the national inspectors.

The teachers employed as inspectors have demonstrated skills and abilities which make them experts on specific subjects or levels of education. They are normally chosen after having applied for the job and in some countries also after having passed an initial test.

In ITALY inspectors teachers applying for the job as in spectors must have at least nine years of teaching experience. The selection for the posts takes place on the basis of the results of 4 tests — the writing of three essays and an oral interview by an examining committee.

In FRANCE the teachers who apply for the job as inspectors must pass an examination held by a consultative committee. Furthermore to become an inspector at regional level you must have taught for at least 5 years and be on a list for those considered qualified to become inspectors. To become an inspector of technical/vocational schools you must compete with other applicants at written and oral tests. The same goes for inspectors at primary and pre-primary level.

In ENGLAND AND WALES posts as inspectors are advertised in the press with job descriptions and the inspectors at national level (HMI's) are selected according to guidelines laid down by the Civil Service Commission.

In a number of countries the newly appointed inspectors go through courses, seminars and other forms of initial instructions during the first period (one or two years) of their employment.

In view of the many complex tasks inspectors must undertake the initial and in-service training of inspectors is remarkably scarce.

In IRELAND the inspector at primary level spends the first 6 months after appointment together with experienced colleagues — observing the way they work. At post-primary level an inspector serves a probationary period of two years. In an introductory period of six months the inspector is assigned to and supported by a colleague.

In PORTUGAL the pedagogical inspectors for primary and pre-primary education must attend and pass a course which lasts about a year. The inspectors for secondary schools have no formal course but some theoretical seminars are offered and some supervised

practice is overseen by a senior inspector. Secondary education inspectors have a probation period of one year. Administrative inspectors must attend and pass a course which lasts from 4 to 8 weeks.

In SPAIN the Inspectorate of Education is setting up a new programme for training inspectors consisting of courses on multilevel educational administration, team working techniques, new methods of evaluation. This new programme must be seen as a way of complying with the demands of the reforms of the education system taking place these years.

In ENGLAND newly appointed inspectors (HMI's) take part in a training programme lasting for one year. The course has three major components: inspection methodology, the education system and interface with policy. The programme consists of practice (visits/ inspections) as well as seminars and courses.

TYPES OF EXTERNAL EVALUATION — (INSPECTORATES)

Parallel to important changes and developments in the national educational systems of many EC countries initiated and /or adjusted by reforms the inspectorates are also affected by these changes and the implementation of new educational concepts and practices.

The Education Reform Act of 1988 in ENGLAND constitues a good example of a fundamental change in the perception of the role that central authorities should play regarding the curriculum of the schools, causing a change in the functioning of the local educational authorities. Implementing the national curriculum means among other things that the main stress in the work of local inspectors//advisers will be put on inspection. The advisory aspects of the inspectors work will at the same time be reduced accordingly.

As mentioned earlier there are differents ways of organising external evaluation and as a consequence differences regarding the organisation of inspection (levels of inspection areas of inspection and reporting in inspection). To start with we may note that only two countries have no formal system of inspection: DENMARK at primary and lower secondary level and GREECE at primary and secondary level.

In DENMARK advisory service is offered at central and local level. Ways and methods of introducing more formal external evaluation are, however being considered.

In GREECE the former system of formal external evaluation by inspectors has been replaced by an advisory system divided in two offices at central level (KYSPE for primary schools and KYSDE for secondary schools). The Pedagogical Institute in Athens cooperate closely with the advisory system in developing the pedagogical and didactic aspects of basic education.

The other countries in EC all have formal systems of inspection. These inspectorates are sometimes found at central level, where an independent office or department has the overall responsibility for controlling standards at all levels of education. In some cases the inspectorates are regionalized in the sense that the central authority has delegated the responsibility for inspection to regional offices.

And finally you find inspection systems which have inspectorates at central as well as at regional and/or local level.

This diagram of course does not in detail describe the methods of evaluation used by the inspectorates in the different countries. In order to get an impression of the ways and procedures that represent so to speak a standard line of action for the system of inspection a few examples will be given.

In the FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY the evaluation made by inspectors is always carried out in consultation with others who know the teacher, including specifically the Head; a date is agreed in advance and the inspector observes one to three lessons depending on the number of specialities in the teacher's qualification, examining also lesson plans and the record of work covered, pupils' exercises and any other graded work; after a discussion of the lessons and other work observed and the standards set and required, including grades awarded, the inspector writes a long and highly detailed report ending with a grade. Teachers also sign the report to show that they have seen it and have at that stage the opportunity to enter any dissenting comment.

In ITALY the inspectors function still more as advisers to the teachers and the schools. They make proposals and offer advice on curricula and examination tests, on the use of teaching aids and learning technologies. Once a year the inspectorate writes a report on the general state and trends of education and the school system.

In the NETHERLANDS inspection means reading the school work plan, observing the teaching and comparing the descriptions in the plan with the teaching observed. Consultation with the teachers on the relation between the school work plan and the teaching. Furthermore there are consultations with the relevant authorities, school heads and teachers. The inspectorate also evaluates examination and leaving examination results every year and the results of that evaluation are made known to the schools and the bodies responsible for policy. The inspectors also control the correctness of the examination and follow-up complaints about the teaching.

In ENGLAND AND WALES the inspection by HM inspectors consists of studying written documentation from the school, observation of teaching, talking to the headteacher and the teachers, inspecting the buildings and teaching materials and equipment. The most important task to be carried out by the HMIs is to assess the quality of the pupils' learning and the teaching being performed. HMIs do not comment privately or publicly on the qualifications of the individual teacher. Besides being concerned with the quality of the learning-teaching process the inspectors also look into the functioning of the whole school. This includes the management of the school, staffing, accommodation and resources.

In chapter 10 a summary of the findings about external evaluation will be given together with some conclusions on the main trends in the development of the inspectorates in the EC countries.

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
BELGIUM (Dutch speaking)	Education Level	P (+ nursery) S		
	Inspector Members	25 head inspectors	Inspectors in regions working under head inspectors	
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
BELGIUM (French speaking)	Education Level	P (+ nursery) S		
	Inspector Members	P — 138 inspectors S — 72 inspectors		
	Functions Areas	[1] 		
	Main Purposes	 		

Notes: 1. Inspection concerns the working plans made by the teachers.

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= *Control*

= *Development*

= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
FRANCE	Education Level	P S	S V	P
	Inspector Members	—	—	—
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
GERMANY	Education Level	P, S, V } 1	S (incl. V)	P (in part S)
	Inspector Members			
	Functions Areas	2, 3, 4, 5, 6		
	Main Purposes			

Key:

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S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Notes:

1. The inspection at central level only concerns general matters.

2. At central level this concerns design and development of curriculum. At regional and local level it concerns putting the curriculum into practice.

3. At central level this encompasses conditions of training and employment; remuneration, redeployment and pensions. At regional and local level it concerns staff matters like promotion and in-service training.

4. At central level: only general matters; at regional and local level: the supervision of school management.

5. At central level: general matters e.g. licensing of text books and teaching material; at regional and local level: practical matters.

6. Teachers and subsidies to local school owners.

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
GREECE	Education Level	P (+ nursery) S V		
	Inspector Members		54 Primary 54 Secondary } Directorates [1] 133 Primary 129 Secondary } Offices [2]	
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Notes: 1. The 108 regional directorates implement the decisions taken at central level and provide feed back for further development and improvement.

2. The 262 Educational Offices facilitate and support the functions of the regional directorates.

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= *Development*

= *Pupils*

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= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
IRELAND	Education Level	P S V		
	Inspector Members			
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

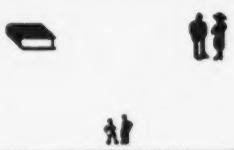
= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
ITALY	Education Level	P (+ pre-primary) S	P S	
	Inspector Members			
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

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Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
LUXEMBOURG	Education Level	P		S [1]
	Inspector Members	15 senior inspectors		
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Notes: 1. Inspection of the secondary schools is the responsibility of the head of the individual schools.

Key:

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S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
THE NETHERLANDS	Education Level	P S V		
	Inspector Members	6 chief inspectorates	3 Districts 237 inspectors (1989)	
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

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= *Curriculum*

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= *Development*

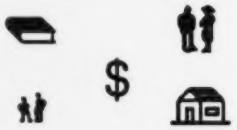
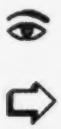
= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
PORTUGAL	Education Level	P S V	P S V	—
	Inspector Members	—	—	—
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

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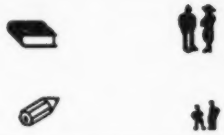
Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
SPAIN	Education Level	P S V	P S V	
	Inspector Members			
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

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Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
UNITED KINGDOM (England/Wales)	Education Level	All levels of education		P S
	Inspector Members	HMI (7 regional/ /geographical areas)		
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

S = *Secondary*

V = *Vocational*

= *Curriculum*

= *Teachers*

= *Control*

= *Development*

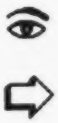
= *Pupils*

= *School as an institution*

= *Teaching materials, equipment*

$ = *Financing, budget*

Table 1: Functions of Inspectorates *(Continued)*

		Central	*Regional*	*Local*
UNITED KINGDOM (Scotland)	Education Level	All levels of education		
	Inspector Members	HMI (3 regional/ /geographical areas)		
	Functions Areas			
	Main Purposes			

Key:

P = *Primary*

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CHAPTER 9: INTERNAL EVALUATION

CHAPTER 9: INTERNAL EVALUATION

Internal evaluation is a very well defined concept in educational contexts. Consequently the practice of this kind of evaluation differs from one country to another. In most cases, however, internal evaluation is equated with what has been known as self-evaluation. The same questions can be asked when trying to delimit the meaning of internal evaluation or self-evaluation as was the case when looking at external evaluation:

— who carries out the evaluation?

— which parts of the school's activities are evaluated?

— what is/are the purpose(s) of evaluating?

— what methods are used in evaluating?

— how are the results of the evaluation used by the schools?

Using the methods of collecting information about internal evaluation described in the introduction of this report (page 9ff) only gives a limited impression of the kinds of internal evaluation used in the member countries. But it is important to remember that what can be described in the following pages is only that part of internal evaluation which is officially and formally required by schools. It must be assumed that schools in most or all countries carry out informal evaluations of their own activities.

These informal evaluation may comprise only part of or all the activities of the school. The following areas are typically the subject of evaluation:

— the performance of the teachers

— the progress of the individual pupil

— the functioning of the class as a group

— the organisation and administration of the school

But there might be other areas which schools could evaluate, for instance the relations between the school and the parents or the relations between the education given by the school and the demands made by the institutions offering further education or the labour market.

* * * * *

In general systematic internal evaluation seems to occur in only a small number of member countries. One of the reasons for the relatively low incidence of internal evaluation might be the lack of adequate guidelines for systematic school evaluation and the absence of the opportunity to engage in internal evaluation. At the same time internal evaluation has a number of advantages. First of all it is not necessary to interrupt the normal schedules for teaching.

The idea of making evaluation an organic part of the teaching and learning process is central to internal evaluation. Evaluation is conceived as a continuous process which also develops the teacher's and headteacher's professionalism. The most obvious advantage of internal evaluation is, however, the possibility of making use of the results of the evaluation immediately by those who are directly in contact with the process of education.

In connection with a programme for developing the quality of the education at all levels the Ministry of Education in DENMARK has initiated the preparation of guidelines for systematic internal evaluation of schools. At primary and lower secondary level these guidelines comprise the evaluation of school management as well as the teaching/learning process and the cooperation between the school and the parents. At secondary level the guidelines deal with the organisation and management of the school and the teaching/learning process in the different subjects.

In SCOTLAND the Ministry of Education in a report on "Effective Primary Schools" from 1989 points out that the first step in promoting internal evaluation is to establish agreed criteria for satisfactory performance in a range of aspects covering the quality of learning and teaching, pupil and parent satisfaction, ethos and management. The criteria it is said should be produced through a process of consultation and be clearly stated in school documents.

Only in a few countries are formal procedures for internal evaluation prescribed. As mentioned informal procedures may be used in other countries when evaluating those activities which are considered to be most important to the functioning of the school as an organisation, the skills and ablilities of the pupils and the quality of teaching.

In ITALY the report from the head of the school must include details on the teacher's intellectual, cultural and professional qualities which result from the teacher's performance in the school as well as his/her diligence, teaching results and relationships with the pupils and their families, participation in educational experimentation and any publications. Written notification for the evaluation must also be transmitted to the teacher. Self-evaluation of management of the school is practically non-existent because of the restricted autonomy schools have in this area. The only "internal evaluation" carried out formally is of teachers in the first year of service or when requested by themselves.

In the NETHERLANDS the teachers and the headteacher draw up /revise a "school work plan" indicating what is to be taught and how the timetable is to be organised in order to achieve the aims and the principles of the school. The work plan has three main functions:
1. to provide schools with a means of accounting for the education they provide and wish to provide;
2. to be a guide for teaching in the school and simultaneously a means of assessing and investigating how the education a school provides can be further improved;
3. to be a source of information for the parents.

In SPAIN the head of the school informs the school council or the relevant authority of any conduct that does not comply with the agreement established in the general school plan. It is also the responsibility of the school council and the steering council to carry out an evaluation on the degree of success of the general school plan. The most relevant conclusions will be included in a report which will be submitted before 10th of July to regional direction for examination by the Technical Inspection Department.

In SCOTLAND schools are generally responsible for preparing their own teaching programme and strategy which will include curriculum and assessment. The extent to which programmes are evaluated, however, is limited. A number of education authorities have offered advice on school evaluation or are in the process of doing so. In one case a system has been established whereby schools undertake evaluation using a common approach and make an annual report to the authority. Some education authorities have distributed papers analysing the main issues commonly identified in HM Inspectors' reports and asked schools to evaluate their performance with reference to them.

Along with some significant changes taking place in the functions of the Inspectorates in a number of countries which among other things mean that the main emphasis in the future will be put on evaluating the school as an organisation, there is also a development towards creating instruments for self-evaluation which the schools may use in assessing and developing their own practice. An important step in this process is the listing of how to determine current levels of performance so that those aspects of the school's work in need of development can be identified.

The SCOTTISH Education Department proposes the following list of activities to be used when determining levels of performance:
1.monitoring by teachers of particular aspects of learning and teaching in their own classrooms (sometimes assisted by a colleague or a member of the promoted staff);
2. analyses of selected pupil work and the results of pupil assessment, and monitoring of standards of pupil attainment;
3. discussion between promoted staff and individual teachers on the teachers' future plans;

4. discussion by staff of school policies and their implementation;
5. monitoring of aspects of the school such as pupil behaviour, attendance and the incidence of particular types of learning difficulties;
6. canvassing of the views of pupils, parents and other interested parties.

There is, however, as yet no strong tradition for carrying out internal evaluation. And furthermore in all kinds of evaluation systems whether external or internal a tension between the control and the advice aspect of evaluation can be traced. To balance out this tension so that those whose performance is evaluated are able to benefit from the results of the evaluation is the principle problem.

CHAPTER 10: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS — PART III

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In chapter 8 it was pointed out that the question on evaluation of schools has been at the centre of debate in many countries during the last decade. Attempts to explain why this issue has occupied educationalists and politicians must at least encompass the following three aspects:

1. Quality of Education

2. Use of Resources

3. Internationalization and competition

There are of course strong connections between the aspects mentioned here. It is not possible in an unambiguous way to disentagle all the cause and effect relations between these forces which have so strongly influenced educational thinking and policies during the last five to ten years. And maybe it gives us a better understanding of the concept and practice of evaluation if we consider the three aspects as concurrent causes forcing the development of educational policies and practice in the same direction.

At the political level there is first of all a need to ensure that the resources used for education bring about maximum benefit for those attending education as well as for the society which invests considerable financial and other resources in education. Increasing internationalization means among things that the demands for more and better education to a higher number of people must be given top priority. Seen from the point of view of the individual citizen more and better education means a higher degree of mobility and consequently better possibilities of employment. From a social point of view a well educated population is an indispensable part of the basis for creating a prosperous and well functioning society. Evaluating the performance of educational institutions must be seen as one of the ways of securing the standards of education in a society.

As was shown in chapter 8 the control of standards and quality of education take the form of inspection in almost all of the member countries. This does not mean, however, that the system of inspection or the content and methods of inspection are the same. What seems to be common to all inspection systems is that they are now gradually changing the focus of main interest in the inspection from the individual teacher's performance to the functioning of the school as an organisation. The HMI systems in ENGLAND, WALES and SCOTLAND seem to have been moving in that direction for some years already and the inspectorates in the other member countries will no doubt develop their practice in a similar direction. This development raises the question of whether the inspectors are properly trained to carry out a whole — school based evaluation. In some countries special, systematic training of newly appointed inspectors are already being implemented and the

situation will probably be the same in the other countries in a few years. For a number of reasons the external evaluation of schools will not be sufficient to accomplish the goals of raising the quality of schooling. As pointed out in chapter 9 the development and implementation of internal evaluation or self-evaluation as it is sometimes called becomes an even more prominent demand on the administration of the education systems.

In spite of the doubts one might have concerning the validity and reliability of internal evaluation there are extremely important gains to be accomplished by motivating the head of the school and the teachers to critically scrutinize their own practice, set up goals for a better practice and carry out plans to reach these goals. An encouraging example of this kind of practice is the Dutch School Work Plan which the head of the school in cooperation with the teachers must work out and revise every other year. The positive effects of internal evaluation must not be underestimated in the light of the problems of creating the necessary conditions for a sufficiently systematic approach to this kind of evaluation. But, there is still a long way to go before the necessary instruments are developed and the practice of self-evaluation has become an organic part of the practice of most schools.

There is no contradiction between practising external evaluation and internal evaluation at the same time. On the contrary this study seems to indicate that the two forms of evaluation will be complementary to one another in the years to come. This will happen in the first place because of the disproportion between the demand for evaluation and the capacity of the inspection systems. There are simply too few inspectors to cover the number of schools. But the need for evaluation will be still more urgent and this will be felt not only by politicians but also by the educationists themselves. The reason being that evaluation theoretically and in practice becomes an organic part of the teaching-learning process causing important changes in the roles played by teachers and learners. To cope with this situation methods of internal evaluation of the school as an organisation and the teaching taking place in the schools will be still more in demand and the schools and teachers assisted by research institutes will probably take steps to develop these instruments.

CONCLUSIONS: MAIN TRENDS

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The comparative analysis, besides emphasising the common aspects and the principal differences present in school administration and in school evaluation processes, has allowed the identification of certain trends in educational policy evolution in those domains (even though the degree to which they have been implemented may vary significantly from state to state).

A summary of these trends will be presented below:

— School tends to become the central unit of the education system administration[1], either through the transfer of the Ministry of Education responsibilities (in traditionally centralised countries), or through intermediate or local authorities (in traditionally decentralised countries).

This decentralisation process (or re-decentralisation) is expressed essentially in two types of measures: reinforcement of the financial resources (and others) to be managed by the school itself and an increased decision-making power of its council; reinforcement of school autonomy through the possibility of approving and executing an "educational project" of its own that takes into account the specificity of its school community and contributes to the flexibility of the national education system.

— Parents and other community representatives increase their influence on the definition of goals to be attained by school (in the frame of its autonomy), as well as the control of its performance and results.

This greater influence of parents and community in general finds its expression in some states, through the increased number of their representatives in school council; in others, through the change in their participation nature: from a merely consultative function to a decision-making role.

Although to a lesser degree, a greater involvement of pupils in the school management process (especially in upper secondary) has also been observed.

— School management becomes an essential element in the definition of strategies aiming to promote the development of school organization, the improvement of its effectiveness and the achievement of excellent levels of performance.

In this context the role of school head evolves from a mere central or local administration representative (with emphasis on the administrative functions) to the pedagogic leader of

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[1] To a certain extent this tendency corresponds to the "school based management" developed in some school districts of the United States (Florida, California, Minnesota and Washington) and Canada (Edmonton, Alberta). See: Daniel J. Brown, *Decentralisation and school-based management*, London, the Falmer Press, 1990.

the educational community (with emphasis on internal and external relations). At the same time, the training of the school head gains in importance, particularly in the development of organizational responsibilities (leadership, planning, decision-making, work-teams animation, etc.).

On the other hand there is a wider involvement of teachers in school management, either through the adoption of "participated management" principles or through processes for delegating responsibilities or, in some states, through the introduction of collegiate management bodies which tend to reduce the head's personal power.

— The increase in school autonomy and the concern with its effectiveness and quality also lead to more attention being focused on school evaluation issues.

On the one hand, the practice of "accountability" (account rendering) develops: schools should present their activity results with the aim not only of controlling but also of developing their management. The question is the application of a principle of external evaluation which is accomplished through several models among which inspection gains in prominence. It must be underlined, however, that in states where inspection services exist they tend to alter the traditional attributions of fiscalization and control into a role of advice and support for development.

The system of inspection and the content and methods are different in the member countries. What seems to be common to all inspections systems, however, is that they are gradually changing the focus of main interest in inspection from the individual teacher's performance to the functioning of the school as an organisation.

On the other hand, a variety of initiatives is emerging in schools, in different Member States, promoting the school "self-review" and "self-evaluation", aiming to obtain a better knowledge of the degree to which their plans and projects have been implemented and to introduce the necessary changes to improve their performance.

Sometimes, these initiatives are the result of the schools reaction to external evaluation: faced with an evaluation based on "standard" criteria, of an almost quantitative nature, planned mainly to control and to compare results, teachers try to oppose an evaluation led by the school itself, taking into account its specificity, using preferentially qualitative methods, more centred on the process than on its results.

At other times, the internal evaluation plays a clearly complementary role in relation to the external evaluation and has the support of external entities.

There is no contradiction between practising external evaluation and internal evaluation at the same time. The two forms of evaluation will for different reasons be complementary to one another in the years to come. The tradition of internal evaluation or self-evaluation is, however, not long and not yet strong enough to play a decisive role in the evaluation of the schools. Innovation projects in this area combined with a stronger common interest in the methods of evaluation will no doubt change this situation.

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Note:

1. Bold numbers correspond to the more developed mentions which exemplify the situation in the several Member States.

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1. The comparative analysis was prepared (as said in the Introduction) on the basis of collected information:

— in EURYDICE national dossiers;
— on the **replies available from the EURYDICE enquiry system**, related to this analysis;
— on the **changes and additions introduced by the several EURYDICE Units in the "grids used for collecting data"** which were expressly outlined for this analysis; and on the **legislation** that was sent at our request.

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EURYDICE is based on the mutual cooperation of all the Units. In addition the European Unit coordinates and animates the network.

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